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चंद्र माथुर राजकीय लोक प्रशासन संस्थान, जयपुर की त्रैमासिक पत्रिका

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प्रशासनिका, हरिशचन्द्र माथुर राजकीय लोक प्रशासन संस्थान, जयपुर की त्रैमासिक पत्रिका है।

प्रशासनिका का संकेन्द्रण विकासशील देशों की प्रशासनिक प्रक्रियाओं का अध्ययन है।

प्रशासनिका में प्रकाशित लेखों व अन्य सामग्री में अन्तर्विष्ट विचार पूर्ण रूप से लेखकों के हैं; वे संस्थान की नीति के वक्तव्य नहीं हैं।

लेखों, समीक्षाओं इत्यादि के सम्बन्ध में समस्त पत्र-व्यवहार सम्पादक, प्रशासनिका, हरिशचन्द्र माथुर राजकीय लोक प्रशासन संस्थान, जयपुर–३०२००४ से करें।

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K REVIEWS/
The समीक्षा

Bhupendra Hooja

Some Problems of Management in the State Sector*

OVER the years, with increasing investments by the Central and State governments in industrial or commercial enterprises, state enterprises have come to assume a dominant position, if not a commanding height, in our national economy. Development of strategic industries or energy resources, public utility services, financial institutions, and more recently the nationalization of commercial banks, state take over of sick mills and the recent talk about the public distribution system—all these are signs of the future trends, and underline the fact that the state sector is likely to play an increasingly more important role in our economy.

Against this background, it becomes necessary to focus attention on some of the management problems in this growing sector. Of course, as far as managerial functions or practical aspects are concerned, problems are the same or similar in the state sector as in the private sector. Even so, there are a few distinguishing features of the state sector which need to be taken note of.

* On the basis of a talk delivered to the probationers at the HCM State Institute of Public Administration, Jaipur. Observations in this paper are based on author's experience as Commissioner for State Enterprises, Government of Rajasthan, 1967-69. For views of the author on important problems of state undertakings, see among others his "Public Enterprises Department in Rajasthan" in *Public Enterprises in India*, eds. Ziauddin Khan and Ramesh K. Arora (New Delhi: Associated Publishing House, 1975); "The Committee on Public Undertakings and Recommendations Regarding the Better Management of State Enterprises." *Prashasnika*, Vol. III (Jan-March 1974), 1-18; and "State Enterprises in Rajasthan" in *Rajasthan Udyog*, II (March 1969), 18-24. The author in collaboration with Mr. Satish K. Batra is also working on a book titled '*State Enterprises in Rajasthan*'.

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Some Problems of Management in the State Sector

To start with, I would like to mention three or four aspects of the situation which affect the style of management in the state enterprises:

The Phenomenon of Adverse Publicity

Whatever small or big happens in the state enterprises receives prompt notice and publicity in the newspapers and other media of mass communication. Partly it may be because of the growing volume of investments in this sector and partly because in the past, except for a few cases, their performance has not been very encouraging. Not that the private sector enterprises do not have their shortcomings or discouraging features. But perhaps because of the link up of our newspapers with important private business houses, some of which are not happy about the expansion of the state sector, every fault or shortcoming in the state sector tends to receive prominent notice and adverse comment. On the other hand, enthusiasts and protagonists of the state sector also seem keen to publicize their activities and achievements, perhaps to create a congenial climate for themselves in keeping with the pronounced objectives of creating a socialistic pattern of society. Thus, during debates and discussions in the Parliament or in the State Assemblies, schemes of future development, negotiations with foreign collaborators and such other items of general importance are publicized over and over again. The result is that managers of state enterprises have to work and show their results as against ambitious targets under a fanfare of publicity. There can be no doubt that this affects their style of management.

The Accountability Mechanism

The second problem is that of accountability. Whatever the organizational form (whether a departmental undertaking, a government controlled company, or a corporation) the state enterprises are ultimately accountable to the public at large through the State Assemblies and the Parliament. Apart from the Parliamentary Committee on Public Undertakings, some State Assemblies have also constituted a separate committee on Public Undertakings to watch the performance of the enterprises under their jurisdiction. Besides discharging all the usual functions of the Public Accounts Committees and the Committees on Estimates, these special committees examine in detail the accounts of various undertakings and the reports of the Comptroller and Auditor General or the Accountant General as the case may be and see whether in the context of autonomy, the affairs of the undertakings are being managed efficiently and according to sound business principles and commercial practices. But that is not all, the state enterprises remain under the

constant focus of attention through questions, debates and discussions and reports presented in the State Legislatures and the Parliament.

Issues of Anonymity and Commitment

The next aspect is that of anonymity. Public services in India being modelled on the British pattern, anonymity is the hallmark of the civil service and this style has also permeated the codes of conduct and attitudes of management functionaries in the state enterprises at almost all levels.

The last aspect is that of commitment. Managers and other functionaries of state enterprises are expected to show a deeper commitment and greater dedication to their duties than their counterpart in the private sector because they are expected to subserve a public cause or a social service.

Real Ownership of Public Enterprises

This brings me to a fundamental question : After all who is the owner or the real boss of a state enterprise ? In the case of private sector enterprises, it is not difficult to spot the owner or the boss, whether it is an individual, a company, or a business house, and whether the enterprise is being managed directly by an individual or a family group or a managing agency. Even in the case of private companies, though theoretically the share-owners are the owner-partners, most of them act and function as sleeping partners leaving the management in the hands of the professional managers or business magnates. Not so in the case of state enterprises, where members of the State Legislatures or the Parliament who assume the role of watch dogs on behalf of the public at large—the sovereign masters—can be treated as anything but sleeping partners. They are both vigilant and vocal and do not miss any opportunity to assert their views in a strong and forceful manner. But, as has often been said, their control is from a distance, even if the political executive tries to play an active role of guidance, supervision and control. The arrangement may be considered to be something like back-seat driving of an automobile. The association of public men and non-officials with the Boards of Directors is being tried out, perhaps as a device for ensuring popular control, but on the whole, this has not yet had the desired affect.

Necessity of Operational Autonomy

Linked with this is the problem of *autonomy*. How far is a state enterprise free or autonomous to take decisions in furtherance of its set objectives or targets ? This is a disputable point, because there are many

ways, direct or indirect, in which the policy decisions, plans and programmes of an enterprise can be influenced by men in power or position.

In a private enterprise, the manager on the spot generally enjoys the confidence of his bosses who have a good deal of faith in his judgement or managerial capacity. But this cannot be said to be always true in the case of state enterprises. That is why we find the Chairmen, Managing Directors, or Chief Executive Officers and other managers of senior rank being changed suddenly and frequently, sometimes like pieces of chess.

Until recently, senior management positions in the state sector mostly fell to the share of civil servants on deputation, in most cases officers of long experience but with a generalist background. The position has recently changed somewhat with the induction of non-official public men, or even professional managers from the open market, or specialists in some technical field. But it cannot be said with certainly that the equation of confidence between the top ranking managers and the policy-makers has changed very much. Even in cases where deputationists have been replaced by public men or professionals, the influence of government representatives in the management boards or Board of Directors remains unaffected and their views or words are accepted as final decisions, thus negating the concept of autonomy.

Unlike in the private sector, the entire system of relationships and organizational or functional structures is based on some sort of *mistrust* against the functionary on-the-spot or those who have to deliver the goods. We may call it a hang-over of the past or too much insistance on the observance of rules and procedures, perhaps necessary, because the funds come from the public exchequer or because of the ultimate accountability to the people. But the fact remains that the system of financial management, or management of materials is based on the guide-line that those entrusted with investment or expenditure functions are likely to dissipate or misuse the funds or other resources placed at their disposal unless rigid systems of checks and controls are enforced.

Fixation of Objectives

To my mind, while assessing the achievement or contribution of any state enterprise, it is necessary, first of all, to understand and appreciate the broad *objectives* for which that particular enterprise was established. Was the objective to prepare armaments for the defence services? Or to create energy resources? Or to process available raw materials, minerals,

metals, chemicals or agricultural produce? Or was the objective to establish the basic infrastructure or public utility services? Or was the objective to generate employment? Orientation towards objectives is necessary because state enterprises are not always profit-motivated or consumer-oriented. In fact, profitability is a new measuring rod for most of the state enterprises. This is not to suggest that either profitability or efficiency should be discounted.

Choosing the Ideal Organizational Form

Linked with the definition and assessment of objectives is the *form of organization*: whether a departmental undertaking, a company, a board or a corporation or the latest version of joint sector units. Of course, it is being increasingly felt that the departmental undertaking is out of date because of the rigid lines of authority and limited autonomy available to management. The Administrative Reforms Commission has expressed itself in favour of corporations – both statutory and sectoral – emphasizing at the same time the need for greater autonomy. This seems to be in keeping with the adoption of democratic principles and procedures, but we have yet to apply these procedures and principles in the fields of industrial and commercial enterprises set up by the state. Perhaps with the passage of time, we will have to create new and suitable forms of organization to accommodate the needs and demands of parliamentary control, professional efficiency and popular participation. The dangers of political interference on the one hand and bureaucratization of management on the other, can, to my mind, be offset to a considerable extent by devising suitable methods of popular vigilance and participative management.

Other Problem Areas

Before I end, in passing, I would like to mention a few more problems which beset the managements of most of the state sector enterprises. These are :

i) Paucity of funds, at least to the extent that funds have to be doled out of the public exchequer.

ii) In many cases, objectives are not clearly defined, though targets are set.

iii) Many enterprises have been set up without proper economic or technical feasability reports.

iv) Because of uncertainty of funds and undefined objectives, long term plans of development are not possible.

v) Limits of accountability or of autonomy have not been clearly defined.

Some Problems of Management in the State Sector

vi) State enterprises have functioned as appendages of government departments without attaining or establishing their individual identities.

vii) Problems of personnel (recruitment, training, career planning, incentives and rewards) have not been sorted out.

viii) In respect of manufacturing enterprises, due attention is not paid to problems of marketing and market surveys.

ix) State enterprises have a long way to go to develop their professional and technological expertise.

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प्रदीप कुमार मेहता

भारतीय नियोजन तथा सामाजिक न्याय

पिछली एक शताब्दी से विश्व में वैज्ञानिक तथा तकनीकी ज्ञान में होने वाली निरंतर वृद्धि के फलस्वरूप आज मानव इस योग्य बन गया है कि वह उपलब्ध सीमित भौतिक साधनों का गहनतम विदोहन कर सके तथा समाज के सभी वर्गों को वे सभी सुविधाएं सुलभ करवा सके जो कुछ समय पूर्व तक समाज के एक छोटे से परन्तु सम्पन्न वर्ग को ही प्राप्त थीं। जैसा कि प्रो. सेम्युलसन का मत है, "....................केवल विज्ञान के उचित उपयोग के माध्यम से ही एक देश अपनी नदियों को स्वच्छ बना सकता है, वातावरण शुद्ध कर सकता है, सभी को कम से कम न्यूनतम जीवन-स्तर प्रदान कर सकता है तथा आर्थिक उपलब्धियों का **यथा-संभव** समान **तथा न्यायोचित** वितरण कर सकता है।"[1]

सामाजिक न्याय की धारणा पिछले कुछ वर्षों से काफी लोकप्रिय हो रही है। प्रगतिशील विचारधारा के समर्थक इसे राज्य के सर्वांगीण विकास की एक आधारभूत मौलिक आवश्यकता मानते हैं। भारत में भी पिछले कुछ वर्षों से इस धारणा पर काफी बल दिया जाने लगा है। विश्व के विद्वान भारतीय संविधान में समानता, स्वतन्त्रता तथा बन्धुत्व की भावना के उल्लेख को मानवीय इतिहास के क्षेत्र में महत्वपूर्ण घटना मानते हैं।

सामाजिक न्याय की भावना इतनी स्पष्ट और सार्वग्रहीय होते हुए भी आज विशेषज्ञों के लिए चुनौती बनी हुई है। आज तक इसकी सर्वमान्य परिभाषा उपलब्ध नहीं है। सामाजिक न्याय की धारणा के अनेक तत्व हैं और यही समस्या का मूल है। एक परिभाषा के अन्तर्गत सभी तत्वों को सम्मिलित कर पाना असम्भव सा बन गया है विलियम फ्रेकना के शब्दों में, "सामाजिक न्याय, दीर्घकाल में, सभी व्यक्तियों के साथ समान व्यवहार है। समान व्यवहार से तात्पर्य है—**सभी को समानता के आधार पर साधन उपलब्धता तथा नियोजन के प्रतिफलों का समान वितरण।**"[2] प्रो० शिनाय[3] के मतानुसार, सामाजिक न्याय के तीन तत्व हैं : समाज के सभी व्यक्तियों के जीवन-स्तर को ऊपर उठाना, बेरोजगारी उन्मूलन तथा आर्थिक शक्ति के संकेन्द्रीकरण पर नियंत्रण के **साथ-साथ विकेन्द्रीकरण पर जोर देना।**

भारतीय नियोजन तथा सामाजिक न्याय

श्री अशोक मेहता[4] का मत है कि सामाजिक न्याय की प्राप्ति शहरी एवं ग्रामीण क्षेत्रों में व्याप्त असंतुलन व दोनों ही क्षेत्रों के निम्न जीवन-स्तर के उन्मूलन से सम्बन्धित है। भारत में, आर्थिक विकास की पृष्ठभूमि में सामाजिक न्याय को[5] भौतिक प्रगति बनाम नैतिक विकास से लिया जाता है।

सामान्यत: सामाजिक न्याय को निरपेक्ष रूप में देखने के स्थान पर आर्थिक प्रगति के साथ सापेक्ष रूप में देखा जाता है। विकास के साथ शिक्षा, सामाजिक सुरक्षा, श्रम कल्याण, आवास व्यवस्था तथा सार्वजनिक स्वास्थ्य की व्यवस्था जहां एक ओर सामाजिक न्याय की प्राप्ति में सहयोग देती है वहां दूसरी ओर आर्थिक विकास की गति को भी तीव्र करती है। वास्तव में विकास के साथ सामाजिक न्याय की प्राप्ति ही आज विकासशील देशों की मौलिक आवश्यकता है। जैसा कि श्री मैकनमारा का विचार है, "विकास ही पर्याप्त नहीं है, इसके साथ न्याय भी आवश्यक है।" प्रो० सेम्युलसन के शब्दों में, "आर्थिक विकास के किसी भी सिद्धान्त पर विचारविमर्श तब तक पूर्ण नहीं मानना चाहिए जब तक यह उल्लेखित न किया जाय कि राष्ट्रीय आय में वृद्धि आधुनिक आर्थिक उद्देश्यों का मात्र एक पहलू है।[6] श्री वी. जगन्नाथन ने अपने एक शोध निबन्ध में आर्थिक प्रगति, सामाजिक न्याय तथा राष्ट्रीय विकास के मध्य दो समीकरणात्मक संबंध स्थापित किये हैं :[7]

$$\text{उत्पादकता} = \frac{\text{स्वास्थ्य व शिक्षा} + \text{प्रेरणा}}{\text{भौतिक साधन}} \quad .... \quad .... \quad .... \quad .... \quad 1$$

$$\text{तथा} \quad \text{राष्ट्रीय विकास} = \frac{\text{उत्पादकता}}{\text{आर्थिक प्रगति} + \text{सामाजिक न्याय}} \quad .... \quad .... \quad .... \quad 2$$

हम जानते हैं कि :

आर्थिक विकास = फलन (बचत प्रवृत्ति, निवेश क्षमता)

अत :

सामाजिक न्याय = फलन (स्वास्थ्य, शिक्षा, प्रेरणा, साधन, बचत, निवेश क्षमता)

अत: यह कहा जा सकता है कि सामाजिक न्याय आर्थिक प्रगति से युग्म है, स्वतंत्र नहीं। ऐसी स्थिति में दोनों को अलग करना दोनों के महत्त्व को घटाना होगा।

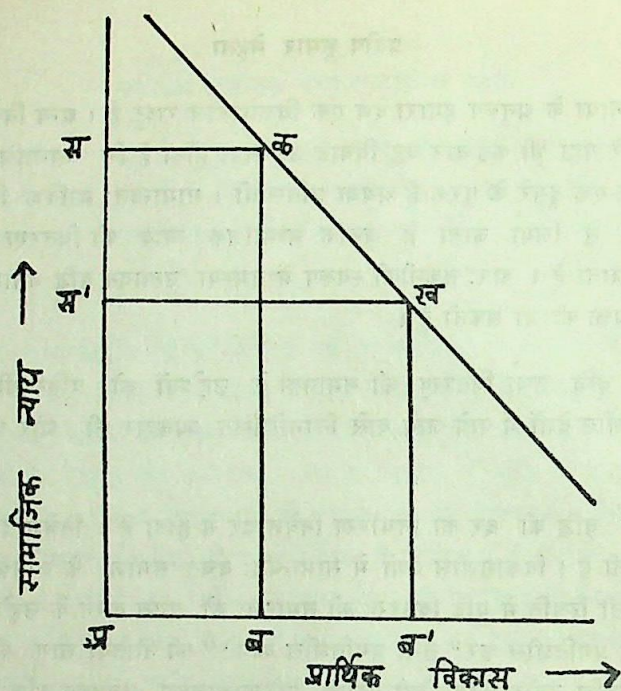
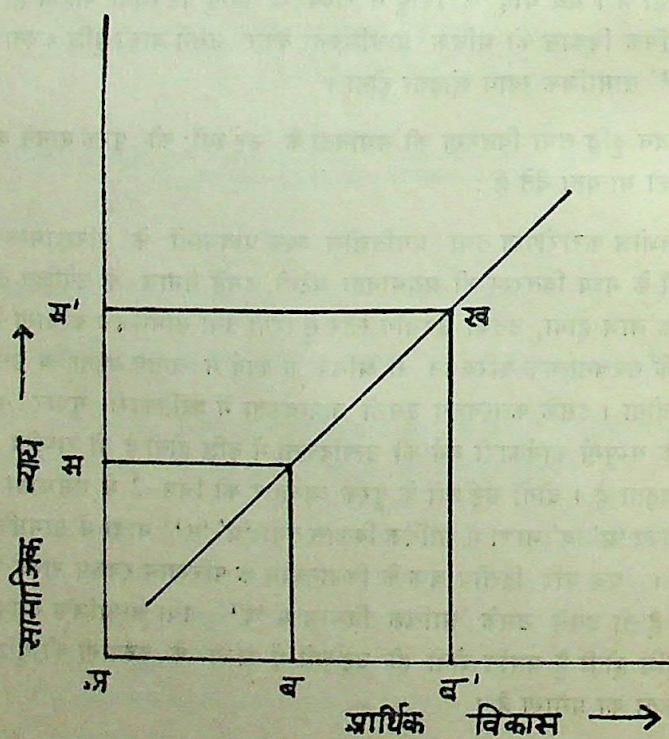
यदि एक विकासशील राष्ट्र को परिभाषित किया जाये, तो एक विकासशील राष्ट्र वह होगा जहां एक ओर प्रति व्यक्ति आय कम हो तथा उत्पादन साधनों में बेरोजगारी व अल्प रोजगारी की स्थिति हो एवं दूसरी ओर जनसंख्या वृद्धि की ऊंची दर के साथ-साथ राष्ट्रीय आय के एक बहुत बड़े भाग पर समाज के छोटे से परन्तु प्रभावशाली वर्ग का नियंत्रण पाया जाये तथा समाज का बहुत बड़ा वर्ग निर्धनता से निम्न अथवा निर्धनता की स्थिति में जीवन यापन कर रहा हो।

इस परिभाषा के अनुरूप हमारा देश एक विकासशील राष्ट्र है। अन्य विकासशील राष्ट्रों के अनुरूप हमारे यहां भी कई बार यह विवाद उठ खड़ा होता है कि सामाजिक न्याय तथा आर्थिक विकास एक दूसरे के पूरक हैं अथवा प्रतिस्पर्धी। सामान्यतः आर्थिक विकास का अर्थ उत्पादन वृद्धि से लिया जाता है जबकि सामाजिक न्याय को वितरण की समानता के संदर्भ में देखा जाता है। अतः तकनीकी स्वरूप में समस्या 'उत्पादन वृद्धि बनाम वितरण की समानता' से व्यक्त की जा सकती है।

उत्पादन वृद्धि तथा वितरण की समानता के उद्देश्यों को प्रतिस्पर्धी मानने वाले विद्वान विकासशील देशों में पाये जाने वाले निम्नलिखित व्यवहार की ओर ध्यान आकर्षित करते हैं :

उत्पादन वृद्धि की दर का निर्धारण निवेश दर से होता है। निवेश दर, बचत प्रवृत्ति पर निर्भर करती है। विकासशील देशों में सामान्यतः बचत समाज के सम्पन्न वर्ग द्वारा की जाती है।[8] ऐसी स्थिति में यदि वितरण की समानता को प्राप्त करने के उद्देश्य से समाज के सम्पन्न वर्ग पर प्रगतिशील कर[9] तथा प्रगतिशील व्यय[10] की नीतियां लागू की गयीं तो इससे उनकी बचत प्रवृत्ति हतोत्साहित होगी जिसके परिणामस्वरूप उत्पादन वृद्धि की दर में गतिरुद्धता आ जायेगी। दोनों उद्देश्यों के प्रतिस्पर्धी व्यवहार को चित्र–1 में समझाया गया है। 'क' बिन्दु पर राज्य 'अ' 'ब' मात्रा में आर्थिक विकास तथा 'अ' 'स' मात्रा में सामाजिक न्याय प्राप्त कर रहा है। अब यदि 'क' बिन्दु से राज्य 'ख' बिन्दु पर आना चाहता है, दूसरे शब्दों में यदि वह आर्थिक विकास को अधिक प्राथमिकता देकर उसमें बाकी वृद्धि करना चाहता है, तो उसे 'स' 'स^1' सामाजिक न्याय छोड़ना होगा।

उत्पादन वृद्धि तथा वितरण की समानता के उद्देश्यों को पूरक मानने वाले अर्थशास्त्री निम्न चक्र को मान्यता देते हैं :

प्रगतिशील करारोपण तथा प्रगतिशील व्यय प्रावधानों के परिणामस्वरूप समाज के विभिन्न वर्गों के मध्य वितरण की असमानता घटेगी, इससे समाज के उपेक्षित तथा निर्धन वर्ग को सर्वाधिक लाभ होगा, उनका उपभोग स्तर सुधरेगा तथा सामाजिक कल्याण में वृद्धि होगी। इस प्रकार के संरचनात्मक परिवर्तन से श्रमिक के कार्य में लगाव बढ़ेगा व उसकी कार्यशक्ति में विस्तार होगा। इसके फलस्वरूप उसकी उत्पादकता में क्रांतिकारी सुधार आयेगा। जब किसी देश के सम्पूर्ण कार्यकारी वर्ग की उत्पादकता में वृद्धि होती है तो राष्ट्रीय उत्पादन स्वतः तीव्रता से बढ़ता है। दोनों उद्देश्यों के पूरक व्यवहार को चित्र–2 में समझाया गया है। 'क' बिन्दु पर राज्य 'अ' 'ब' मात्रा में आर्थिक विकास तथा 'अ' 'स^1' मात्रा में सामाजिक न्याय प्राप्त कर रहा है। अब यदि द्वित्तीय चक्र के क्रियान्वयन के परिणाम स्वरूप राज्य 'ख' स्थिति पर चला जाता है तो इससे उसके आर्थिक विकास में 'ब^1' तथा सामाजिक न्याय की स्थिति में 'स^1' की वृद्धि होती है अर्थात दोनों ही उद्देश्यों में राज्य के कल्याण की वृद्धि होती है जो उसकी पूरकता का प्रमाण है।

चित्र-1
प्रतिस्पर्धी व्यवहार

चित्र-2
पूरक व्यवहार

भारत जैसी मिश्रित अर्थव्यवस्था में ये दोनों ही चक्र अपना–अपना प्रभाव दर्शाते हैं। परन्तु द्वितीय चक्र का प्रभाव अधिक पाया जाता है। इसके दो महत्वपूर्ण कारण है :

1 : चूंकि समाज का सम्पन्न वर्ग स्वयं श्रम नहीं करता वरन् उसके मार्ग निर्देशन में पूंजी, पूंजी को जन्म देती है अतः प्रगतिशील करारोपण उसकी बचत प्रवृति पर कोई उल्लेखनीय प्रभाव नहीं डाल पाता है। इसके साथ ही उसकी बचत में जो थोड़ी बहुत निरपेक्ष कमी आती है वह कर वृद्धि से सरकारी आय में होने वाली वृद्धि से निरस्त हो जाती है; तथा

2 : चूंकि समाज का सम्पन्न वर्ग पहले से ही काफी उच्च जीवन स्तर पर होता है अतः प्रगतिशील व्यय प्रावधानों से लाभ न मिलने पर भी उसमें असंतोष की स्थिति का जन्म नहीं होता है। इसके विपरीत प्रगतिशील व्यय प्राववानों से प्रति व्यक्ति उत्पादकता में काफी वृद्धि होती है।

चूंकि प्रथम चक्र भी कुछ हद तक अपना प्रभाव दर्शायेगा अतः उसकी पूर्ण उपेक्षा न तो संभव है और न ही वांछनीय। आवश्यकता दोनों के मध्य संतुलित नीति अपनाने की है जो न सिर्फ तीव्र आर्थिक विकास में सहायक बन सकें वरन् सामाजिक न्याय के चिर–प्रतीक्षित लक्ष्य को भी पाने में सहयोग कर सके।

भारत में आर्थिक विकास के साथ सामाजिक न्याय की पूरकता को स्वीकार करते हुए कई सम्मेलनों में मत व्यक्त किये गये हैं। 1931 में भारतीय राष्ट्रीय कांग्रेस ने अपने एक सम्मेलन में कहा, " आर्थिक जीवन की संरचना सामाजिक न्याय की पृष्ठभूमि में निर्मित की जानी चाहिये तथा इसे उच्च जीवन स्तर प्राप्त करने के संदर्भ में देखा जाना चाहिये।"[11] सन् 1947 में दिल्ली कांग्रेस की सभा में पारित प्रस्ताव में कहा गया था कि, "हमारा उद्देश्य एक ऐसे आर्थिक कलेवर का नव निर्माण और विकास करना होना चाहिये जिसमें धन के एक ही दिशा में एकत्रित होने की प्रवृत्ति के बिना अधिकतम उत्पादन किया जा सके, जिसमें नागरिक एवं ग्रामीण अर्थ–व्यवस्था में उचित सामंजस्य हो।"[12] 1948 में भारतीय कांग्रेस ने कहा, "प्राकृतिक साधनों को अधिकतम उत्पादन के लिये प्रयोग करने के साथ–साथ राष्ट्रीय न्यूनाधिक जीवन स्तर प्राप्त किया जाये।" 1954 में पंडित नेहरू ने कहा था कि, "समाजवादी समाज की स्थापना के लिये········ शीघ्र से शीघ्र आय के असमान वितरण को दूर किया जाये, प्राप्त साधनों का गहन विदोहन किया जाये, शर्मीली पूंजी को बाहर निकाला जाये और देश का तीव्र गति से आर्थिक विकास किया जाये।"

स्पष्टतः भारतीय राष्ट्रीय कांग्रेस का नेतृत्व सैद्धान्तिक दृष्टिकोण से आर्थिक विकास तथा सामाजिक न्याय की पूरकता को स्वीकार करता है। अतः स्वतंत्रता प्राप्ति के पश्चात् 1950 में योजना आयोग का गठन किया गया जिसके आधारभूत उद्देश्यों में राष्ट्रीय आय तथा प्रति व्यक्ति राष्ट्रीय आय में तीव्र वृद्धि करने के साथ-साथ अधिकतम रोजगार, समाजवादी समाज की स्थापना तथा आय वितरण की असमानताओं में कमी और धन के अधिकाधिक

समान वितरण को भी सम्मिलित किया गया। इन सभी उद्देश्यों का लक्ष्य सामाजिक न्याय की प्राप्ति ही था। परन्तु क्या व्यवहार में इन्हें प्रभावशाली ढंग से क्रियान्वित किया जा सका ? यह एक ऐसा प्रश्न है जिसका पूर्ण संतोषजनक हल आज तक ज्ञात नहीं हो सका है। कुछ विद्वान मानते हैं कि सामाजिक न्याय की दिशा में भारतीय नियोजन अपने सीमित काल में काफी सफल रहा है। लेकिन सामाजिक न्याय को रातों रात प्राप्त कर लेने की आशा करना व्यर्थ है। इसकी प्राप्ति में काफी समय लगता है। जबकि अनेक विद्वानों का मत है कि भारत में सामाजिक न्याय की प्राप्ति की दिशा में अग्रसर होने के स्थान पर विपरीत दिशा में कदम उठाये गये हैं, देश में नियोजन के साथ आर्थिक विषमताएं भी बढ़ी ही हैं। राष्ट्रीय आय के वितरण में असमानता बढ़ी है,[13] पूंजी संकेन्द्रित हुई है तथा राष्ट्र के पहले से विकसित भागों का तेजी से विकास हुआ है जबकि पिछड़े हुए भाग तेजी से पिछड़ते गये हैं।[14] देखना यह है कि वास्तव में देश में सामाजिक न्याय के प्रयास सार्थकता पूर्ण ढंग से उठाये गये हैं अथवा यह एक भ्रम जाल ही है।

स्वतंत्रता प्राप्ति के पूर्व भारत पर ब्रिटिश शासन था। स्वतंत्रता प्राप्ति के समय देश की अर्थव्यवस्था पूर्णतः छिन्न-भिन्न हो चुकी थी। राष्ट्र हर क्षेत्र में निर्धन और पिछड़ा हुआ था। स्वतंत्रता प्राप्ति के समय देश की अर्थव्यवस्था द्वितीय विश्व युद्ध के प्रभाव से ग्रस्त थी। विभाजन ने भी हमारी अर्थव्यवस्था को गंभीर बना दिया। विभाजन के परिणामस्वरूप खाद्यान्न तथा कच्चे माल उत्पादित करने वाले प्रदेश पाकिस्तान में चले गये। ऐसी स्थिति में, प्रथम योजना में सामाजिक न्याय को न तो विशेष स्थान दिया गया और न ही ऐसा संभव था। वस्तुतः उस समय अर्थव्यवस्था को स्थायित्व व तीव्र आर्थिक विकास की आवश्यकता थी और यही योजना का मुख्य उद्देश्य रखा गया। फिर भी सामाजिक सेवाओं पर कुल व्यय प्रावधानों का 23 प्रतिशत व्यय किया गया जिससे इस दिशा में संतोषजनक प्रगति हुई। योजना में कहा गया था कि "सामुदायिक विकास वह तरीका है, और ग्रामीण प्रसार वह अभिकरण है जिसके माध्यम से इस पंचवर्षीय योजना में सामाजिक व आर्थिक जीवन के रूपांतरण की प्रक्रिया को शुरू किया जा सकता है।" और इसी के अनुरूप कार्य करने का प्रयास भी किया गया। परन्तु कुल मिलाकर प्रथम योजना में सामाजिक न्याय के संदर्भ में कोई विशेष कार्य नहीं किया जा सका। देश में आर्थिक विषमताएं घटने के स्थान पर बढ़ी ही हैं। इसके बावजूद प्रथम योजना ने देश के भावी आर्थिक विकास और समाजवादी समाज की स्थापना"की दिशा में एक नये विश्वास को जन्म दिया।

देश की द्वितीय पंचवर्षीय योजना पूर्णतः औद्योगीकरण पर बल देने वाली थी अतः इसमें भी सामाजिक न्याय की दिशा में कोई विशेष व्यवस्था नहीं की जा सकी। फिर भी योजना में स्पष्ट लिखा गया, "द्वितीय योजना का उद्देश्य ग्रामीण भारत का पुनर्निर्माण करना, ...जनता के निर्बल और उपेक्षित वर्गों के लिये यथासंभव अधिक अवसर सुरक्षित करना, और देश के समस्त भागों का संतुलित विकास करना है।" इस योजना में कुल व्यय का 18 प्रतिशत समाज सेवाओं के विस्तार पर व्यय किया गया। सामाजिक न्याय के संबंध में आधारभूत

कूटनीति यह थी कि स्वास्थ्य, शिक्षा, श्रम कल्याण आदि का पर्याप्त विस्तार कर समाज के निर्धन वर्ग की क्रय शक्ति बढ़ाई जाये तथा उनका जीवन स्तर सुधारा जाये ।

सामाजिक न्याय की दृष्टि से तृतीय योजना भी कोई कीर्तिमान स्थापित नहीं कर पायी । तृतीय योजना काल में देश को दो बार विदेशी आक्रमण और भयंकर सूखे का सामना करना पड़ा जिससे सारी योजना अस्तव्यस्त हो गयी । पहले की दोनों योजनाओं की तरह इस योजना में भी अवसरों की समानता में वृद्धि, धन व आय वितरण की विषमता में कमी तथा आर्थिक शक्ति के न्यायोचित वितरण पर बल दिया गया था । इस योजना में सामाजिक सेवाओं पर कुल व्यय का 17 प्रतिशत व्यय किया गया जिसके परिणाम स्वरूप शिक्षा तथा चिकित्सा के क्षेत्र में काफी सुधार आया । देश की औसत आयु जो 1960–61 में 45.6 वर्ष थी वह इस योजना के अन्त में बढ़ कर 50.3 वर्ष हो गयी । श्रम कल्याण तथा पिछड़ी जातियों से संबंधित भी कई योजनाओं को कार्यरूप दिया गया ।

इस प्रकार जहां तक सामाजिक न्याय का प्रश्न है, आर्थिक नियोजन के प्रथम पन्द्रह वर्ष निराशाजनक ही रहे । समाज सेवाओं पर किया जाने वाला व्यय चौगुना हो गया । शिक्षा तथा चिकित्सा के क्षेत्र में भी व्यापक विस्तार हुआ । आवास व्यवस्था भी धीमी गति से सुधरी परन्तु यह सब आवश्यकता से काफी कम था (देखिये तालिका–1) । फिर आय तथा धन के वितरण की असमानता में काफी वृद्धि हुई । चूँकि उत्पादन भी अपेक्षित गति से नहीं बढ़ा अतः देश पर मुद्रा स्फीतिकारी दबाव भी बढ़ने लगा । कुल मिला कर सामाजिक न्याय के संदर्भ में स्थिति यह रही कि हम दो कदम आगे की ओर बढ़े परन्तु साथ ही हमें चार कदम पीछे भी हटना पड़ा ।

तालिका – 1

प्रथम तीन पंचवर्षीय योजनाओं में सामाजिक सेवाएं

तत्व	प्रथम योजना	द्वितीय योजना	तृतीय योजना	कुल	इकाई
1 : कुल योजना व्यय	1960	4600	8628	15,186	करोड़ रु. में
2 : समाज सेवाओं पर व्यय	459	830	1533	2,822	करोड़ रु. में
3 : कुल व्यय से प्रतिशत	23	18	17	19.3	प्रतिशत
4 : प्राथमिक पाठशालाएं	2.80	330	4.08	10.18	लाख में
5 : छात्रों की संख्या	248.1	349.9	515.0	111.30	,,
6 : चिकित्सालयों की संख्या	9.80	12.60	—		हजारों में
7 : चिकि शैयाओं की संख्या	136	186	240	562	,,

भारतीय नियोजन तथा सामाजिक न्याय

तीसरी पंचवर्षीय योजना के पश्चात आगामी तीन वर्ष वार्षिक योजनाओं से भरे गये। इन योजनाओं का मुख्य उद्देश्य राष्ट्र की अर्थव्यवस्था को स्थायित्व प्रदान करना था। इन योजनाओं के फलस्वरूप देश के ऊपर से अनिश्चितता का वातावरण हट गया। सामाजिक न्याय की स्थिति अब भी विशेष सुखद नहीं थी।

वास्तव में देश में सामाजिक न्याय के उद्देश्य पर ध्यान चौथी योजना से ही केन्द्रित किया जाने लगा। चौथी योजना की आधारभूत कूटनीति ही तीव्र आर्थिक विकास के साथ समानता तथा सामाजिक न्याय की स्थापना तय की गयी। इस विशाल उद्देश्य को प्राप्त करने के लिये निम्न रणनीति तय की गयी :

1 : नियोजन से आय तथा धन के वितरण में अपेक्षाकृत अधिक समानता लायी जाये,

2 : आय, धन तथा आर्थिक शक्ति के केन्द्रीकरण को रोका जाये, तथा

3 : समाज के निर्धन वर्ग को, विशेषत: अनुसूचित जातियों तथा जन जातियों को आर्थिक विकास के अधिकाधिक प्रतिफल उपलब्ध करवाये जायें।

इस योजना में ग्रामीण विकास हेतु ग्राम तथा लघु उद्योगों को काफी प्रोत्साहित किया गया। लगभग 850 करोड़ रु० इस मद पर व्यय हुए। इसका मूल उद्देश्य लघु उद्योगों की उत्पादन तकनीकों में सुधार, उनका विकेन्द्रीकरण, तथा कृषि आधारित उद्योगों को प्राथमिकता देना रखा गया। शिक्षा के क्षेत्र में कुल मिला कर 1000 करोड़ रु० के लगभग व्यय हुआ। योजना के दौरान प्राथमिक शिक्षा को प्रोत्साहन देने का उद्देश्य था जिस पर अधिक तत्परता से कार्य नहीं हो सका। स्वास्थ्य तथा चिकित्सा सुविधाओं को भी पर्याप्त महत्व दिया गया। इस योजना काल में परिवार नियोजन कार्यक्रम के माध्यम से लगभग दो करोड़ बच्चों के जन्म को रोकने अथवा स्थगित करने में सफलता मिली। इस प्रकार योजना काल में जन्म दर में लगभग 7 प्रति हजार की कमी लायी जा सकी। ग्राम्य क्षेत्रों में आधारभूत स्वास्थ्य सेवा प्रदान करने के लिये प्राथमिक स्वास्थ्य केन्द्रों को काफी प्रोत्साहन दिया गया। इस प्रकार पिछली योजना से अलग, इस योजना में सामाजिक न्याय की ओर बढ़ने के लिये ठोस प्रयास किये गये। 1971-72 में ग्रामीण रोजगार हेतु योजना से लगभग 50 करोड़ रू० की व्यवस्था की गयी ताकि प्रत्येक जिले में कम से कम 10,000 व्यक्तियों को अल्पकालीन रोजगार सुलभ करवाया जा सके। इसी प्रकार के प्रावधान योजना के आगामी वर्षों के बजटों में भी किये गये। इन सब प्रयासों के फलस्वरूप सामाजिक न्याय की स्थिति में काफी सुधार आया। यद्यपि स्थिति बहुत अधिक संतोषजनक नहीं थी।

पांचवी पंचवर्षीय योजना में, सामाजिक न्याय के साथ आर्थिक विकास को एक आधारभूत लक्ष्य बनाया गया। इस योजना को जन योजना का नाम भी दिया जाता है। प्रथम बार समाज के निर्धनतम 30 प्रतिशत वर्ग के उपभोग को सुधारने के लिये ठोस लक्ष्य निर्धारित

किये गये । शिक्षा के संबंध में यह कहा गया कि इसका निर्धारण तथा विस्तार इस प्रकार हो कि समाज के पिछले तथा कमजोर वर्ग को लाभ पहुंचे । पहाड़ी व जन जातीय क्षेत्रों के विकास हेतु 500 करोड़ रु० का प्रावधान रखा गया । इसी प्रकार देहातों में पीने के पानी की व्यवस्था के लिये भी 500 करोड़ रु० निर्धारित किये गये । राष्ट्रीय न्यूनतम आवश्यकता का एकदम नया कार्यक्रम इस योजना में प्रस्तुत किया गया । यह कार्यक्रम समाज के निम्नतम 30 प्रतिशत वर्ग के विकास हेतु बनाया गया । इसके व्यय प्रावधान निम्न है :

मद	प्रावधान (करोड़ रु. में)
प्रारम्भिक शिक्षा सुविधा	701.03
सार्वजनिक स्वास्थ्य की न्यूनतम तथा समान सुविधाएं	821.67
पीने के पानी की सुविधा	554.00
ग्रामीण सड़क निर्माण	498.00
गंदी बस्तियों की सफाई व सुधार	94.63
ग्रामीण विद्युत व्यवस्था	276.03
कुल प्रावधान	3053.31

स्रोत : **पांचवीं योजना का प्रारूप**

ग्रामीण विद्युत व्यवस्था के संबंध में राष्ट्रीय विकास परिषद् ने मत व्यक्त किया है कि "विभिन्न राज्यों के अन्तर्गत तथा प्रत्येक राज्य के अन्दर असमानता समाप्त की जाये और जहां तक संभव हो सभी क्षेत्रों में ग्रामीण विद्युतीकरण कार्यक्रम की प्रगति समान हो....प्रत्येक राज्य के कम से कम 30 से 40 प्रतिशत ग्रामीण जन समूह को बिजली मिल जानी चाहिये ।"

इस प्रकार सामाजिक न्याय के दृष्टिकोण से पांचवी योजना काफी आकर्षक तथा महत्वपूर्ण है । उल्लेखित लक्ष्यों की प्राप्ति निश्चय ही देश में सामाजिक न्याय की दिशा में क्रांतिकारी सिद्ध हो सकती है । परन्तु फिर भी पांचवी योजना के प्रावधानों में कुछ असामंजस्य

है जिसका दूर किया जाना आवश्यक है। इस नियोजन प्रावधान की आधारभूत मान्यता प्रजातंत्र के अन्तर्गत समाजवादी समाज की स्थापना है परन्तु प्रजातंत्र तथा समाजवाद का एक दूसरे पर अन्तर प्रभाव, मिश्रित अर्थव्यवस्था की सैद्धांतिक सीमाएं तथा सीमित प्रशासनिक क्षमता की नियोजन ढांचे में उपेक्षा कर दी गयी है। जैसा कि प्रो० राव का मत है कि समाजवादी राष्ट्रों में पाये जाने वाले व्यवहार के विपरीत, भारत जैसे विकासशील राष्ट्र में आर्थिक सामाजिक नियोजन से प्राप्त भौतिक उपलब्धियों को समाज के निर्धन वर्ग में रोजगार, आय तथा सामाजिक सेवाओं के रूप में वितरित करने के लिये हमें भौतिक संतुलन दृष्टिकोण तथा वित्तीय प्रतिबंधन से स्थानांतरित होना पड़ेगा।[15] अतः यदि सामाजिक न्याय के साथ आर्थिक विकास के लक्ष्य को प्राप्त करना है तो समाजवादी, साम्यवादी तथा पूंजीवादी, तीनों प्रकार की विचारधाराओं से पीछे हट कर विचार करना होगा ताकि हम आंतरिक प्रतिबंधनों की उचित व्यवस्था कर सकें। अभी भी अर्थव्यवस्था में अनेक प्रशासनिक तथा संरचनात्मक असंतुलन हैं जिनकी उपेक्षा सम्पूर्ण योजना को असफल बना सकती है। ऐसी स्थिति में यदि नियोजन का उद्देश्य सामाजिक न्याय की प्राप्ति है तो सभी क्षेत्रों के लक्ष्यों का असामंजस्य दूर करते हुए पुनः मूल्यांकन किया जाना चाहिये।

कुछ समय पूर्व डा० मिन्हास ने सार्वजनिक कार्यक्रमों के संदर्भ में एक कार्यक्रम दिया था[16] जिसमें उन्होंने देश में सामाजिक सुधारों को लागू करने हेतु उपयुक्त वातावरण की सराहना की थी। उन्हीं के शब्दों में, "वर्तमान समय में, जबकि देश के सभी राजनैतिक दल एक दूसरे से बढ़ चढ़ कर निजी सम्पत्ति पर नियंत्रण तथा उत्पादन साधनों के तथा नियोजन प्रतिफलों के समान वितरण की प्राप्ति हेतु विचार प्रकट कर रहे हैं, भूमि सुधारों तथा तत्संबंधी अन्य उपायों को क्रियान्वित करना अपेक्षाकृत सरल होगा।"[17]

यदि उपरोक्त आलोचनाओं के संदर्भ में पांचवी योजना को संशोधित किया जाये तो अधिक उचित होगा। जो भी हो, अच्छे परिणामों की आशा की जानी चाहिये। इस प्रकार 1950-80 तक के 30 वर्षीय काल को सामाजिक न्याय के दृष्टिकोण से दो भागों में बांटा जा सकता है। प्रथम भाग में 1950-51 से 1968-69 तथा 1969-70 से 1978-79 द्वितीय भाग में। सामाजिक न्याय की दृष्टि से प्रथम भाग निराशाजनक रहा जब कि द्वितीय भाग में पर्याप्त प्रगति की उज्जवल संभावनाएं मौजूद हैं।

विभिन्न राज्यों की प्रति व्यक्ति आय में नियोजन के फलस्वरूप आने वाले परिवर्तन सामाजिक न्याय में प्रगति का परिचय प्रस्तुत कर सकते हैं। यदि नियोजन के परिणामस्वरूप निम्न प्रति व्यक्ति आय वाले राज्यों की आय तेजी से बढ़े तो इसे सामाजिक न्याय की दिशा में प्रगतिशील कदम माना जा सकता है। निम्न तालिका-2 भारत के 14 राज्यों की विभिन्न वर्षों में प्रति व्यक्ति आय की स्थिति प्रदर्शित करती है। विभिन्न राज्यों के मध्य परिवर्तनों का अध्ययन करने के लिये 1950-51 की आय की घटते हुए क्रम में जमाया गया है तथा अन्य वर्षों की आय को भी घटते हुए क्रम से दिया गया है :

तालिका—2 [18]

राज्यानुसार प्रति व्यक्ति आय का अध्ययन

राज्य	1950-51		1955-56		1960-61		1965-66		1971-72	
	आय	क्रम	आय	क्रम	आय	क्रम	आय	क्रम	आय	क्रम
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
प० बंगाल	333.68	1	333.55	1	383.21	1	433.43	1	550	9
गुजरात	297.27	2	280.97	4	333.35	4	393.45	47	778	3
महाराष्ट्र	269.63	3	306.45	2	332.57	3	384.66	3	810	2
पंजाब	258.75	4	280.60	3	354.61	2	438.94	2	902	1
केरल	248.46	5	257.49	5	292.36	5	316.38	5	561	7
असम	235.93	6	246.92	7	254.57	9	263.84	9	536	11
मद्रास	230.48	7	248.66	6	287.72	6	327.49	6	551	8
उ०प्रदेश	205.63	8	208.91	11	226.67	11	263.65	12	598	4
म०प्रदेश	202.90	9	218.26	8	234.41	8	266.27	7	569	6
आंध्रप्रदेश	200.97	10	221.89	9	241.82	9	277.41	11	545	10
राजस्थान	189.54	11	214.64	10	224.90	10	263.69	10	575	5
मैसूर	172.92	12	189.58	12	203.84	13	236.11	13	470	12
उड़िसा	159.92	13	162.31	13	189.90	12	262.86	8	402	13
बिहार	144.71	14	152.78	14	166.69	14	212.81	14	—	—

प्रस्तुत तालिका के अध्ययन से इस कथन की पुष्टि नहीं हो सकती कि आर्थिक विकास के साथ असमानताएं बढ़ी ही हैं। कुछ पिछड़े राज्यों की तुलनात्मक स्थिति में अन्तर आया है। यद्यपि कुछ विकसित राज्यों की विकास गति भी पहले से तीव्र हुई है। कुछ राज्य तुलनात्मक रूप से पूर्ववत ही बने रहे हैं। ऐसे राज्यों में विकसित और विकासशील दोनों ही है—आंध्र-

प्रदेश, मैसूर, उड़ीसा तथा बिहार हैं। कुछ राज्यों के विकास करने की दर में गिरावट आयी है जिसके परिणामस्वरूप उनका तुलनात्मक उच्च स्थान छिन गया और वे नीचे आ गये हैं। ऐसे राज्यों में पश्चिम बंगाल, गुजरात, केरल, असम व मद्रास हैं। कुछ राज्य ऐसे हैं जिनकी विकास दर बढ़ती गयी, फलस्वरूप उनकी तुलनात्मक स्थिति सुधरती गयी। ऐसे राज्यों में महाराष्ट्र, पंजाब, उत्तर प्रदेश, राजस्थान तथा मध्य प्रदेश है। इनमें से महाराष्ट्र तथा पंजाब पहले से ही विकसित थे। स्पष्टतः राज्यों के मध्य सामाजिक न्याय की धारणा को कुछ हद तक क्रियान्वित किया जा सका या दूसरे शब्दों में यह कहा जा सकता है कि नियोजन के फलस्वरूप आर्थिक असमामताएं नहीं बढ़ी।

यदि अध्ययन को और सूक्ष्म और निष्पक्ष बनाया जाये तथा प्रमाप विचलन (Standard Deviation) तथा विचलन गुणक (Coefficient of Variation) की गणना की जाये तो निम्न परिणाम सामने आते हैं :

तालिका – 3

राज्यानुसार प्रति व्यक्ति आय के विचलन तथा विचलन गुणक की गणना

वर्ष	प्रमाप विचलन	माध्य	विचलन गुणक
1950–51	51.67	225.4	23.06
1955–56	50.30	237.0	21.22
1960–61	64.00	266.0	24.06
1965–66	71.40	310.0	23.03
1971–72[19]	134.40	—	22.40

यहां निम्न सांख्यिकीय सूत्र प्रयुक्त किये गये : $\overline{X} = \frac{1}{n}\sum_{i=1}^{n} X_1$

$$S.D. = \sqrt{\frac{1}{n}\sum_{i=1}^{n}(X_1 - \overline{X})^2}$$

$$C.V. = \frac{S.D.}{\overline{X}} \times 100$$

संकेत :
X = माध्य
n = इकाईयों की संख्या
X_1 = ith इकाई का मान
S.D. = प्रमाप विचलन
C.V. = विचलन गुणक

प्रमाप विचलन के अध्ययन से यह स्पष्ट है कि नियोजन के प्रारंभ में विचलन कुछ घटा, परन्तु उसके बाद निरंतर बढ़ता रहा । अध्ययन को और सूक्ष्म और पक्षपात रहित बनाने के लिये विचलन गुणक की गणना की गयी । गुणक अध्ययन से यह स्पष्ट होता है कि 1950–72 के मध्य कुल मिला कर क्षेत्रीय असमानताओं में कमी ही आयी यद्यपि यह कमी बहुत महत्वपूर्ण तथा प्रशंसनीय नहीं मानी जा सकती । फिर भी यह निष्कर्ष तो निकाला ही जा सकता है कि नियोजन काल में आर्थिक विषमताएं बढ़ी नहीं । यदि सामाजिक असमानताओं में कमी आने की यही गति रही तो लक्ष्य तक पहुँचने में सदियां लग जायेगीं । आशा की जानी चाहिये की पांचवीं योजना असमानताओं में कमी की दर में तीव्र वृद्धि कर सकेगी । संतोष करने के लिये यह भी कम नहीं है कि हम लक्ष्य की ओर तो न बढ़ें परन्तु पीछे भी न हटें । जैसा कि प्रो० प्रसाद तथा राव का मत है यद्यपि असमानताओं में बहुत अधिक गिरावट नहीं आयी, जैसे कि लक्ष्य थे...............फिर भी यह स्वागत योग्य है कि आर्थिक विषमताओं में कोई वृद्धि नहीं हुई है ।[20]

फिर भी इस तथ्य का अध्ययन किया जाना आवश्यक है कि जब नियोजन काल में आर्थिक तथा समाजिक विषमताए घटाने के इतने प्रयास किये गये तो फिर वे कौन से कारण थे, जिनके परिणामस्वरूप केवल विषमताओं के बढ़ते हुए प्रभाव को रोकने में ही सफलता मिल सकी । इस संबंध में निम्न कारण महत्वपूर्ण रूप में उभर कर सामने आते हैं :

1. श्रम नीति

भारत सरकार की श्रम नीति उत्पादकता के स्थान पर श्रम कल्याण को अत्यधिक बल देती है । इससे श्रमिक वर्ग में गैर उत्तरदायित्व की भावना जन्म लेने लगी है । कई बार तो सरकार ने श्रम कल्याण के लिये उत्पादकता में कमी की स्थिति को भी स्वीकार किया । यह एकांगी स्थिति सामाजिक न्याय की प्राप्ति में सहायक नहीं हो सकती । राज्य को इस संदर्भ में हमेशा संतुलित नीति अपनानी चाहिये । यही नहीं, एक न्यूनतम मजदूरी स्तर के पश्चात, उत्पादकता में वृद्धि के साथ मजदूरी वृद्धि को जोड़ दिया जाना चाहिये [21] ताकि जहां एक ओर श्रमिक अपनी उच्चतम उत्पादकता को प्राप्त करने की चेष्टा करे और देश की तीव्र उत्पादन वृद्धि में भाग ले वहां दूसरी ओर उसका कल्याण तथा उसकी मांग शक्ति *(Barga-ining Power)* में निरन्तर स्वतः वृद्धि होती रहे ।

2. शिक्षा नीति

राष्ट्र की शिक्षा नीति में पिछले कई वर्षों से मूलभूत परिवर्तनों की बात कही जा रही है परन्तु उसका क्रियान्वयन अभी तक संभव नहीं दिखता । भारतीय शिक्षा प्रणाली आर्थिक विकास में सहयोग देने के स्थान पर मात्र क्लर्क उत्पादन प्रक्रिया में कार्यरत है । इसी प्रकार अब तक उच्च शिक्षा पर ही जोर दिया जाता रहा है जबकि आवश्यकता प्राथमिक शिक्षा के विस्तार की ज्यादा है ।[22] संविधान की धारा 45 की पूर्ति भी तभी संभव है । इसमें कहा

गया है कि संविधान लागू होने के दस वर्ष के अन्दर अन्दर राज्य 14 वर्ष की आयु वाले सभा बच्चों को निःशुल्क तथा अनिवार्य शिक्षा की व्यवस्था करेगा । 1980 तक भी यह लक्ष्य आंशिक रूप से ही प्राप्त हो सकेगा। इसके साथ ही उच्च शिक्षा के ढांचे भी मूलभूत परिवर्तनों की आवश्यकता है ताकि वह उत्पादन वृद्धि तथा श्रम नियोजन के माध्यम से आर्थिक प्रगति बनाम सामाजिक न्याय के दोहरे उद्देश्य की प्राप्ति में सहायक सिद्ध हो सके ।

3. मजदूरी तथा वेतन संबंधी नीति

देश में मजदूरी तथा वेतन संबंधी उचित नीति का अभाव रहा है । आज ऐसी नीति की आवश्यकता है जो समाजवादी समाज की स्थापना में योगदान दे सके । ऐसी नीति के मूल तत्व होंगे :[23]

1 : मजदूरी ढांचा मजदूरों की वास्तविक आय बढ़ाने वाला हो,
2 : मजदूरी ढांचा मजदूरी आय तथा गैर मजदूरी आय में संतुलन स्थापित कर सके,
3 : मजदूरी ढांचा बेरोजगारी समस्या के निवारण में योगदान दे सके,
4 : मजदूरी ढांचा बचतों को प्रोत्साहित करें, तथा
5 : वह नियोजन के प्रतिफलों का न्यायोचित वितरण करने में योगदान दे सकें ।

4. मौद्रिक तथा राजकोषीय नीति

सरकार की मौद्रिक तथा राजकोषीय नीति के संचालन ने आर्थिक असमानताओं को प्रोत्साहन दिया है । इन दोनों की संयुक्त गतिविधियों ने देश को भयंकर मुद्रा स्फीति के दौर में धकेल दिया था । देश में मूल्य वृद्धि की दर 30 प्रतिशत हो गयी थी जो किसी भी कदम के प्रभाव को निरस्त करने की क्षमता रखती है । पिछले कुछ माहों में, सरकार ने इस तीव्र मूल्य वृद्धि पर नियंत्रण हेतु कुछ उपाय किये हैं जिनमें लाभांश वितरण पर नियंत्रण तथा अनिवार्य बचतों को कार्यरूप दिया गया है ।।[24] इसी प्रकार सरकार पिछड़े क्षेत्रों में औद्योगीकरण को प्रोत्साहित करने में भी असफल रही है ।

उपरोक्त सभी बाधाएं ऐसी नहीं है कि जिन पर नियंत्रण न पाया जा सके, न ही भारत में ऐसे चिन्तनशील वर्ग की कमी हैं जो कि इन समस्याओं का प्रभावशाली समाधान न सुझा सके । इस वर्ष के नोबल पुरस्कार विजेता श्री गुरनार मिर्डाल का मत है, "मैं इस तथ्य पर बल देना चाहता हूं कि भारत में उच्च श्रेणी के बुद्धिजीवी वर्ग की कमी नहीं है । मेरे अध्ययनों के अनेक तर्क तथा अनेक नीति संबंधी सुझाव अपने अपने क्षेत्रों में कार्यरत ऐसे ही विद्वानों के महत्वपूर्ण कार्यों पर आधारित हैं ।[25] आज आवश्यकता तो इस बात की है कि इस दिशा में सक्रिय कदम उठाये जायें तथा निष्पक्ष भाव से आर्थिक तथा सामाजिक समानता की दिशा में कार्य किया जाये ।" इस संबंध में श्री दांडेकर का [26] यह रोचक सुझाव स्वागत योग्य है कि सभी राजनेताओं की सम्पत्ति जनता की जानकारी के लिये खुली रखी जाये । इस प्रकार के प्रयासों से यद्यपि नागरिकों के मौलिक अधिकारों पर अंकुश लगेगा परन्तु इसके अनेक दूरगामी परिणाम होंगे जो देश में व्याप्त भ्रष्टाचार को जड़ से कुचलने में समर्थ हो सकेंगे ।

ऐसे ही अनेक सुझाव हैं जो देश में सामाजिक न्याय प्राप्ति की दिशा में क्रान्तिकारी सिद्ध हो सकते हैं। स्वयं सरकार भी इसको जानती है तथा अर्थशास्त्री भी इन पर कई बार विचार कर के ठोस निष्कर्षों पर पहुंच चुके हैं। पुनः आवश्यकता सक्रियता और निष्पक्षता की है। आशा की जानी चाहिये की पांचवीं पंचवर्षीय योजना इस दिशा में मील का पत्थर सिद्ध हो सकेगी।

टिप्पणियां

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5. विड वाईथर : सोशल जस्टिस : आवर रिसोर्सेस वर्सेस द रियेलिटी, **अवार्ड**, वोल्यूम 15, अंक 1–2, जनवरी–मार्च 1964।

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7. बी. जगन्नाथन : ग्रोथ विद सोशल जस्टिस, **प्रोडेक्टिविटी**, वाल्यूम XV, अंक 1, अप्रेल-जून 1974, पृष्ठ 48–49।

8. नेशनल कांसिल ऑफ एप्लाइड इकनौमिक रिसर्च ने अपने एक अध्ययन में पाया है कि भारत में निम्न आय वर्ग (0–3000 रु० आय वाला) ऋणात्मक बचत करता है, मध्यम आय वर्ग (3001—25000 रु० आय वाला) का बचत–आय अनुपात 12 प्रतिशत है तथा उच्च आय वर्ग (25001 तथा अधिक आय वाला) का बचत आय अनुपात 44 प्रतिशत है। देखिये :

   प्रदीप कुमार मेहता : पोवर्टी एण्ड इनइक्वेलिटी इन इंडिया, **फाइनेन्स एण्ड कामर्स**, जनवरी 1974, पृष्ठ 27-28।

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   आर. ए. मसग्रेव : द थ्योरी ऑफ पब्लिक फाइनेन्स, अध्याय–5, पृष्ठ 90-115।

10. प्रगतिशील व्यय से तात्पर्य है अधिकतम सामाजिक लाभ से पोषित व्यय जिसके अन्तर्गत कुल व्यय प्रावधानों से उत्पन्न लाभ समाज के निर्धन वर्ग को अधिकतम तथा सम्पन्न वर्ग को न्यूनतम मात्रा में प्राप्त होता है।

    देखिये, आर. ए. मसग्रेव : पूर्व उल्लेखित पुस्तक, अध्याय–5।

11. डी० पट्टाभि सीतारामय्या : कांग्रेस का इतिहास, भाग 2 व 3।

12. डी० पट्टाभि सीतारामय्या : पूर्व उल्लेखित।

13. स्वयं रिजर्व बैंक के एक अध्ययन से यह निष्कर्ष प्राप्त हुआ है कि आज देश की 80 प्रतिशत जनसंख्या को कुल आय का मात्र 20 प्रतिशत तथा 20 प्रतिशत जनसंख्या को 80 प्रतिशत भाग प्राप्त हो रहा है।
    देखिये : वी. एम. दांडेकर तथा एन. राय : पोवर्टी इन इंडिया।

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15. सी. एच. हनुमन्त राव : स्ट्रेटजी फार रिमुवल ऑफ पावर्टी, लापसिडेडनेस ऑफ फिफ्थ प्लान, **इकोनोमिक एण्ड पोलीटिक वीकली**, स्पेशल न० 1973, वाल्यूम VIII, न० 31-33, पृष्ठ 1465।

16. डा. बी. एस. मिन्हास : टुवर्ड सोशल जस्टिस : रूरल पावर्टी, एम्पलायमेंट एण्ड ग्रोथ, नई दिल्ली, भारत सरकार, सूचना और प्रसारण मंत्रालय, मई 1970।

17. डा. बी. एस. मिन्हास : पूर्व उल्लेखित रचना, पृष्ठ 15।

18. स्रोत : क्वाटरली इकोनोमिक रिपोर्ट ऑफ द इंडियन इंस्ट्टीट्यूट ऑफ पब्लिक ओपिनियन, वोल्यूम VII, न. 4, अप्रेल 1961, पृष्ठ 46, 1965-66 तथा 1971-72 के आंकड़े अलग से जोड़े गये हैं। 1950-51, 1955-56, 1960-61 तथा 1965-66 के आंकड़े 1955-56 के मूल्यों पर है जबकि 1971–72 के आंकड़े वर्तमान मूल्यों पर ही है। चूंकि हमें उनके क्रम का अध्ययन करना है, निरपेक्ष मूल्यों का नहीं, अतः मूल्य स्तर

में परिवर्तन कोई व्यवधान उपस्थित नहीं करेगा। वैसे 1971–72 की प्रति व्यक्ति आयों को भी1955-56 के मूल्यों में बदला जा सकता है। फिर भी उनका क्रम वही रहेगा, मान बदल जायेगें।

19. चूंकि S. D. तथा C. V. निरपेक्ष स्थिति के स्थान पर विचलन को मापते हैं अतः इन पर मूल्य स्तर का कोई प्रभाव नहीं पड़ता है।

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G. C. Singhvi

Prosecution in Magistrate's Courts : Why Not Engage Practising Lawyers

THE code of criminal procedure, 1973 (number 2 of 1974) which came into force on the 1st of April 1974, introduced various novel innovations in criminal procedure and one of these relates to the conduct of prosecution in the courts of magistrates which is governed by section 25 of the code.

According to sub-section 1 of section 25 of the code, the state government has to appoint one or more Assistant Public Prosecutors for conducting prosecution in the courts of magistrates. Sub-section 2 lays down that save as otherwise provided in sub-section 3, no police officer shall be eligible to be appointed as an Assistant Public Prosecutor (A.P.P.). And under sub-section 3, where no A.P.P. is available for the purpose of a particular case, the District Magistrate may appoint any person to be the A.P.P. as an incharge of that case. Also, no police officer is eligible for appointment, if he has taken part in the investigation into the offence with respect to which the accused is being prosecuted or if he is below the rank of Inspector.

Prior to 1 April, 1974, the code of criminal procedure, 1898 (number 5 of 1898), as amended from time to time, was in force. Prosecution in the courts of magistrates, under that code, was governed by section 492, sub-section 1 of which laid down that the state government may appoint generally, or in any case, or in any specified class of cases, in any local area, one or more officers to be called public prosecutors. It was in exercise of powers conferred by this sub-section that the government of Rajasthan[1] had appointed the Prosecuting Inspectors and Prosecuting Sub-Inspectors of the police department as ex-officio Public Prosecutors within

the district of their postings for cases tried or enquired into by magistrates after investigation by the police.[2]

But the striking innovation—introduced by the code of criminal procedure, 1973 as to the prosecution of criminal cases in the courts of magistrates is the declaration of non-eligibility of police officers to be appointed as A. P. Ps. Otherwise the code of criminal procedure, 1973 prescribed no conditions to the effect that the A. P. Ps. should be law graduates or that they should have experience of practising at the bar for a specified number of years.

Thus although neither the law nor any directive of the Central Home Minister, nor the joint committee report pertaining to it ever said that the A. P. Ps. might not be in the police department, our state[3] for certain reasons must have deemed it proper not to keep them in the police department.

Accordingly with effect from the 1 April, 1974, the prosecution was separated from the police in Rajasthan and the erstwhile Prosecuting Inspectors and Prosecuting Sub-Inspectors were—transferred to the newly created department of prosecution and redesignated as A. P. Ps. grade one and grade two respectively.

In districts they were placed under the District Magistrates. At the state level they were placed under a Director of Prosecution. The Deputy Secretary to the Government in the Home Department was appointed ex-officio Director of Prosecution. An Additional Director at the state head–quarters and Assistant Directors at the divisional headquarters were also appointed to assist the Director in the discharge of his duties.

Closely analyzed, two significant changes strike us. The Prosecuting Inspectors and Prosecuting Sub-Inspectors of police, when they eventually became A.P.Ps. grade one and grade two respectively on the 1st of April, 1974, ceased to be police officers and instead of being in the police department and serving the District Superintendent of Police, these A.P.Ps. were put in the newly created department of prosecutions and in the districts under the administrative and operational control of the District Magistrates.

Whether perhaps the framers of the law, when they said that no police officer shall be eligible to be appointed as an A.P.P. and our state government, when they added that the A.P.Ps. will not be under the police department had in mind might be the — observations of the Law Commission of India.[4]

The Law Commission cautiously began by drawing attention to the importance of ensuring the virtues of integrity and independence in the prosecuting agency. "It must not also be forgotten that a police officer is generally one sided in his approach. It is no reflection upon him to say so. The police department have been charged with the duty of maintenance of law and order and the responsibility of prevention and detection of offences. It is naturally anxious to secure convictions. Not infrequently relevant witnesses are kept back by the prosecution...These are the results of the excess of zeal by the police officers and a want of realization of their true function."

The Commission next emphasized the need for an adequate measure of coordination between the prosecuting and investigating agencies. The assistance of the prosecutor should always be available to the investigating agency on "whether any particular link in the chain of evidence is missing, whether any connected aspect of the matter requires to be investigated in order to fill up a possible lacuna in the prosecution case, whether sanction for the prosecution is necessary, and such other matters as cause difficulty to the investigating officers during the investigation and before they file a police report." On surveying the existing state of affairs in various states of India, the Commission felt that the prevailing salary scales were too poor to attract competent and qualified prosecutors. The Commission, therefore, recommended a complete separation of the prosecution agency from the police department.

Then the closely related prevalent feeling that because the professional police prosecutors always prosecuted cases and dealt only with the criminal law of the land, their approach to prosecution tended to be partisan and narrow minded, themselves being police officers. Thus it is obvious that they were out to secure convictions, rather than carry out prosecution which comprises "fairly to place the relevant evidence before the court and not to obtain a conviction at all costs;[5] (primary responsibility of a prosecutor is not that he shall win his case but that justice is done.[6]) which in turn made public prosecutors out of police prosecutors, must also have weighed heavily in favour of the separation of prosecution from police.

One is prone to ask : Do the separation of prosecution from police and the re-organization of prosecution agencies help us to achieve the spelled out objectives? Stated differently, what is to be ascertained is whether the concept has been clothed with a befitting structure.

To begin with, the police department is alleged to be fond of securing convictions. The innovation makes no change in this respect because the District Magistrate is more responsible for the maintenance of law and order in the district than the District Superintendent of Police. Hence the District Magistrate must be no less anxious to secure convictions. It is like transferring old wine into a new bottle. The change has also not been able to make a thrust in the direction of cultivating the bedrock virtues of integrity and independence in prosecutors. It may well be due to the fact that the incumbents of the posts are the same government servants as they were before the Ist of April, 1975. Their salary scales also have not been so designed as to make the posts attractive. In effect on the other hand, they amazingly though, are lower than the earlier scales.[7] The measure of coordination between the prosecuting and investigating agencies suffered a set-back because at present the police do not have as much control over the prosecutors as do the clients over their lawyers. The new relationship is peculiar and bristles with problems.

Coming to the attitudinal aspect of the matter, the attitudes of the A. P. Ps. arguably continue to be the same as that of the P. Is. and P. S. Is. of Police because these A. P. Ps. deal only with prosecution of cases and that too under the criminal law of the land. Thus the A. P. Ps., despite the separation, continue to have the same attitudes and angularities towards prosecution as their predecessors (P. Is. and P. S. Is. of Police) had.

It is thus demonstrably evident that the structure of separation does not conform to the recommendations of the Law Commission and hardly serves the government its purpose. Instead, it piled up difficulties in the process of police investigation.

However to do justice to the concept of separation, the presecution duty may be assigned to the members of the bar instead of continuing with the practice of employing professional prosecutors who are in permanent service of the government.[8] It may be pointed out that in United Kingdom the members of the bar deal with prosecution cases where the police bring proceedings to the court. And the practices prevalent in the U. K. have a great relevance to our judicial and police working as they are broadly guided by the common law of U. K. It is notable that during such proceedings in the British courts, these prosecution lawyers have exclusive right of audience; before other courts the solicitors or barristers could appear on behalf of prosecution. Sometimes, it so happens that a member of bar appears for the prosecution in one case and for the defence in a succeeding

ding case. The absence of a hierarchy of professional prosecutors and the answerability of the prosecuting counsel to the traditions and discipline of the bar (which is concerned as much with the rights of the defence as of the prosecution) are expected to provide an important safeguard against the arbitrary or over-zealous exercise of the prosecutor's position.[9]

In the United Kingdom, there has been a controversy over what is called 'police advocacy'. Although "police officers may acquire all the merits of the good advocate, they are apt to be partial." It is hard for members of a police force to have such detachment that the lawyer cultivates with great care. On the other hand, chief constables have some ground for complaint. They say that there has been a succession of inexperienced young solicitors fumbling with their cases who leave the prosecution work as soon as they gain some experience; consequently new learners appear. The tendency, therefore, is towards giving all the work to one person who becomes the country or police solicitor.[10]

In the United States also the prosecutors have got to be members of the bar. In many parts of the U. S. A. "where prosecutors are elected, the only required qualification for holding that office is that the incumbent has attained voting age and is a lawyer". However, there also they have more and more stridently been expressing the view that "lawyers of standing, integrity, industy, ability and experience,"[11] should be appointed as prosecutors.[12]

In the light of the British and American practices, it is suggested that our government also follow the practice of employing practising advocates as prosecutors rather than having professional prosecutors who are in the permanent employment of the government. The following procedure may be considered :

First, prosecution in the courts of magistrates should be conducted not by professional prosecutors (in permanent government service), but by members of the bar.

Second, the members of the bar entrusted with the prosecution work should be at liberty to practise any law they like at the bar. Not only that, in cases, in whlch they may not be engaged as prosecutors they could appear on the side of the defence as well.

Third, for every court of a magistrate, a panel of three advocates who have been in practice as advocates for not less than four years and who are

"imbued with a sense of the prosecutor's moral obligation to protect the innocent", should be approved by the government, on the recommendation of the District and Sessions Judge, the District Magistrate and the District Superintendent of Police. This should be subject to a trennial review.

Fourth, it should be left to the police to engage any one of the panelized advocates as A. P. P. for the prosecution of a case investigated by them. For it is the "duty of the police to investigate and to prosecute when the evidence justified it and this duty can be enforced by the courts of law."[13]

Fifth, remuneration for these A. P. Ps., should be fixed by the state government in the form of a rate-schedule and payment made to them on the authority of a certificate by the police.

Sixth, no police officer (even a constable or a head constable) should be attached to the panelized advocate as A. P. P. Instead the clerical assistance required for a case should be provided by the advocate's clerk. While fixing the rate-schedule of prosecutor's fees for the cases, the state government should make due provision for payment to the clerk of the A. P. P., as well.

Seventh, for technically supervising and coordinating the works of the A. P. Ps , the services of the Director, Regional Deputy Directors and District Assistant Directors of prosecution should be utilized. These officers, in the fitness of things, should be officers belonging to the state judicial service called on deputation to the department of prosecution.

While concluding this paper, two questions may pertinently be asked. One is, when public prosecutors appearing on behalf of the state in the High Courts and the Sessions Courts have in terms of section 24 of the code of criminal procedure. 1973, got to be advocates and those too of not less than seven years standing as practising advocates, why should an exception be made in case of Assistant Public Prosecutors for cases tried or enquired in to by magistrates after investigation by the police ? The other one is, when there are counsels for defence, why should there not be counsels for prosecution and why should the state prefer professional prosecutors to practising advocates for conducting prosecution in magistrate's courts ? There are, perhaps, no convincing answers to these questions. It is hoped that as soon as the prosecution in the courts of magistrates is conducted by A. P. Ps. who are practising advocates of standing, the dream of the Law Commissioners will come true. In the process of administering justice, it must be ensured that the structure of the procedural body is manifestly just.

Notes

1. This paper is restricted in its dealing. It deals with the case of Rajasthan only.
2. Government of Rajasthan, Law Department Notification No. 3 (35) LR/51 dated June 12, 1951.
3. And likewise, may be, many other states as well.
4. The Law Commission of India, Fourteenth Report Vol. II, Chapter 35, pp. 765–775.
5. The Rule of Law in a Free Society : A Report on the International Congress of Jurists, New Delhi : India, 1959. International Commission of Jurists, Geneva, Switzerland, p. 10.
6. The State of the Union. Commentaries on American Democracy (Robert B. Dishman), 1964, p. 263.
7. As against P. S. Is' pay scale of Rs. 160–360 (with additional Rs. 50 p. m. for law graduates and Rs. 20 p. m. for non-law graduates as special pay) the A. P. Ps. grade second are to get the scale of Rs. 180–425 only. Similarly, as against the P. Is' pay scale of Rs. 275–650 (plus Rs. 75 p. m. as special pay) the A. P. Ps. grade one are to have the scale of Rs. 300–800 only.
8. "The prosecution function necessarily involves the exercise of restraint and a sense of fairness which can not be comprehensively reduced to precise formulation." And this restraint can better be exercised by members of the organized legal profession which is "free to manage its own affairs under the general supervision of the courts and within such regulations governing the admission to and pursuit of the legal profession as may be laid down by statute". "The Rule of Law in a Free Society", *op. cit.*, pp 278 and 311.
9. The Rule of Law in a Free Society, *op. cit.*, p. 257.
10. R. M. Jackson, *The Machinery of Justice in England* Cambridge University Press, Second Edition, 1953, pp. 111 and 113.
11. The State of the Union (USA), *op. cit.*, p. 264.
12. "In the Soviet Union, on the other hand, all stages of criminal proceedings until trial, are in the hands of the prosecuting authorities, who constitute an elaborate hierarchy under the Prosecutor–General of the U. S. S. R. in turn answerable to the Supreme Soviet (legislature) or in practice to the Presidium which assumes the functions of the Supreme Soviet when, as is normally the case, the latter is not in session. Evidence obtained in the preliminary investigation is admissible in the trial, and it rests with procuracy rather than with the courts to ensure that the police or (since 1955) state security agencies observe the law in the collection of evidence". The Rule of Law in a Free Society. *op. cit.*, pp. 262–263.
13. Lord Denning, *Constitutional Developments in Britain : The Fourteenth Amendment*. Scientific Book Agency, Calcutta, 1973, p. 120.
14. Lord Hewart, R. V. Sussex Justices (1924), IKB 256 (259).

Asha Hingar

Nature of the Occupation and Personality Needs of the Individual

IN order to understand the role of occupation in the life of an individual it is necessary to have the knowledge of his desires, needs and wants which he strives to fulfil through his occupation. A number of scholars have discussed a variety of mechanisms of fulfilment of needs in work situations. G. V. Cleeton has listed food, physical need, activity, meeting, sharing thoughts and feelings, dominance over people and elements, self determinism, achievement, approvation and ideation as important needs associated with the human working. Likewise, G. W. Allport, P. E. Vernon and G. Lindzey have also given a list of such needs which influence the selection of an occupation and performance in work.[1]

Definition of "Need"

Generally it is assumed that a need is a psysiological or psychological requirement for the maintenance of the homeostasis of an organism. Dictio nary meaning of "need" is want of something requisite, desirable or useful. A popular and scientific classification of needs have been provided by Abraham Maslow.[2] According to him, "an individual is an integrated and organizational whole."[3] Thus in understanding and classifying man's motives one should adopt a human-orientation rather than a drive-orientation as the drives are primarily concerned with animal behaviour or physiological aspect of behaviour. In other words, a classification of needs should be based upon life goals, and these goals must be fundamental ones and not certain specific goals. Drive-centered classification of human goals is not acceptable to Maslow.

Nature of the Occupation and Personality Needs

Maslow's Classification of Needs

Maslow concept of needs has specific relevance for the psychology of occupation. He has to arrange the basic needs in a hierarchy of prepotency. Under equal deprivations the prepotent needs are more urgent and insistent than the others, and until the prepotent ones are relatively satisfied the others do not emerge as consistant motivators of behaviour.

Maslow has suggested that human needs may be classified into five different groups or classes. The important factor about Maslow's theory, however, is not so much his classification system, it is the fact that he considers these five need-classes to form a structure of hierarchy of needs. His need-hierarchy is explained as under :

a) Physiological needs (air, food, rest etc.);
b) Safety needs (freedom from deprivation or damages);
c) Love needs (group belongingness, friendship, social etc.);
d) Esteem needs (reputation, self respect etc.); and
e) Self fulfilment needs (realization of potentials growth etc.).

Maslow has observed that man is a creature of expanding needs. Once his basic needs have been fairly well met, they no longer act as a strong motivating force, and the individuals efforts are then directed toward satisfying needs at the next level of the hierarchy. In other words, as needs at each successive level are met a person's goals change. Maslow believed that for a majority of people belonging to societies with a high standard of living, needs in first three levels, being regularly satisfied, no longer exact much motivational effect. It may be interesting to note that Maslow has classified his needs-scheme into two broad categories, viz., growth and deficiency needs. Deficiency needs are lower level needs concerned with physiological and safety aspects of life, while growth needs are the higher level needs pertaining to social esteem and self-fulfilment aspirations.

An occupation provides an individual the opportunities to satisfy his needs of various levels. If occupation fails to render such opportunities or else the individual himself is unable to find such opportunities, he is likely to get disturbed in his work situation. Thus an organization should increasingly seek to meet the upper level needs of its members. Jobs which can satisfy more of the lower level needs are likely to result in greater satisfaction on the part of the employees. Thus Maslow's theory emphasizes efficacy of intrinsic factors contributing to workers' satisfaction.

The Pre-Condition for Basic Need Satisfaction

In more recent statement of the need fulfilment model, it has been hypothesized that job satisfaction is a function of the correspondence between the needs of the individual and reinforcement system of the job. The need type hypothesis proposes that the pattern of needs of an individual is an important moderator variable in the prediction of job satisfaction. Therefore, it assumes that because of the existence of individuals with distinctive need patterns, there exist different need types. These need types seem to differ mainly in the way various needs are inter-related.

In socio-psychological research, certain needs have been found to be associated with personality. Among these are the need for achievement, for affiliation, and for power.[4] These needs are considered fairly stable characteristics which influence the way various individuals respond to challenges, risk and group tasks.

Needs and Values : Their Relationship

Recent studies in the field of applied psychological literature have increasingly emphasized the intrinsic and extrinsic job competence. Herzberg has classified job values into two categories, viz., extrinsic values and intrinsic values. Intrinsic factors are defined as those directly related to the actual performance of the job such as "achievement, responsibility and nature of work," while extrinsic factors are defined as those related to the environment in which job is being performed, such as company policy, working conditions and security.

Carl Rogers has considered the self-actualizing motive as inherent, basic and primitive. According to his view, all individuals are motivated toward the achievement of personal growth which, in turn, leads to highest level of satisfaction. Some individuals, however, because of certain situational variables, insecurity or other personality factors would not be able to achieve the level of self-actualization. For them, satisfying security needs and adjusting to their present situation would be of prime importance. Nevertheless, they would not be able to achieve the same level of satisfaction which is attained by those who have the chance to fulfil their needs of self-actualization.[5]

Strauss George and Sayles have emphasized that the eductional level of an individual will determine the level of satisfaction arising from intrinsic factors. They then have contended that the need for self-actualization may

be a characteristic of academics and well-educated individual and that it is a carry-over of the learning situation.[6] Inherent in this view is the assumption of the drive theorists that the self-actualizing motives are based on higher order reinforcement steming ultimately from primary drives which in Maslow's terminology belong to the category of 'deficiency' motivation. The need for self-actualization or for being intrinsically-oriented is thought of as an acquired motivation which depending on their experiences and the cultural norms of their working groups may exist in some individuals while not in others.

Extrinsic Factors affecting Job Satisfaction

There are some students of social psychology who support the view that the intrinsic factors are not necessarily a source of satisfaction and that some individuals can be content with satisfying only the needs underlying the extrinsic factors. In such cases, therefore, the orientation towards the intrinsic or extrinsic factors would not make any difference in the level of satisfaction. Many of the studies in this area have been concerned primarily with relating the employees' motivational orientation which is determined from the employee's rating of job factors to personal background factors and to occupational levels. If employees at low level jobs rated the extrinsic factors as more important than the intrinsic factors, the conclusion drawn was that employees of low level would receive greater satisfaction from the extrinsic job factor than from the intrinsic factors.

Intrinsic Factors affecting Job Satisfaction

Conversely, Frederick Herzberg, Abraham Maslow and Douglas McGreger have emphasized the importance of the intrinsic factors in contributing the worker's satisfaction. The model of self-actualizing man becomes most relevant if one considers the motivation of managers, professional employees, and generally, more highly educated groups in our society. For example, in the study of accountants and engineers, Frederick Herzberg and his associates found clear evidence for the importance of intrinsic factors of motivation.[7] They had asked each of their respondents to describe what was going on when they were feeling both particularly good and particularly bad about their jobs. Then they coded the various responses and classified them into general categories such as factors relating to accomplishment, salary and security.

Herzberg and his colleagues found that what the respondents mentioned when they said they felt good about their jobs-factors which are genuine

motivators-invariably had to do with accomplishments and the feeling of growth in job competence. what made these man feel good was clearly related to self-actualization. What made them feel bad about the jobs, on the other hand, related to the background or surrounding factors such as inadequate salary poor supervision. An orientation toward one or other type of motivational factors relates to the fulfilment of different sets of needs. Intrinsic and extrinsic orientation are associated with the fulfilment of the need for growth and deficiency needs.

Conclusion

Thus it can be concluded that workers are motivated by the desire to achieve or maintain the various conditions upon which these basic satisfactions rest and also by certain more intellectual desires. These basic goals are related to one another as they are arranged in a hierarchy of prepotency.

Notes

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2. Abraham Maslow, *Motivation and Personality* (New York, Harper, 1954).
3. *Ibid.*
4. D. C. Mc Clleland and J. W. Atkinson, "The Projective Expression of Needs," *Journal of Psychology*, Vol. 25, pp. 205-222.
5. Carl Rogers, *Toward Becominga Full Functioning Person in Perceiving, Behaving and Becoming* (Washington, D. C. : Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, 1962).
6. George Strauss and Leonard R. Sayles, *The Human Problems of Management* (Englewood Cliffs, N. J. : Printice Hall, 1963).
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8. Abraham Maslow, *op. cit.*

N. N. Vyas

Tribal Research Institutes : A Major Invention for Policy Research

TRIBAL Research Institutes are modern invention in government setting which are directed at improving knowledge about the tribals and researches in their life and welfare programmes.[1] Establishment of eleven* Tribal Research Institutes in the country between 1953 to 1972 is largely based on the major recommendations of the various national commissions and committees on tribal welfare and tribal research. Some of the recommendations have been well supported by the Department of Tribal Development, Ministry of Home Affairs, Government of India, which is the chief sponsoring agency to run these centres through various states. The detailed features of Tribal Research Institutes have been adjusted to the characterstics conditions of each state and its specific need for tribal welfare. The basic characterstics and objectives of these organisations are quite uniform as they result from the very nature and essentials of applied research.

Organisational Set Up

The organisational set up of Tribal Research Institutes reveals that they had good beginning and enjoyed considerable status and respect from civil service as well as academic world. These organisations primarily

* Tribal Research Institutes were opened in States having above one million of tribal population. Nine Tribal Research Institutes set up in IIIrd Five Year Plan have been working at Bhubneshwar (1953), Ranchi (1954), Chhindwara (1954), Calcutta (1955), Poona (1962). Ahmedabad (1963), Shillong (1963), Hyderabad (1963), Udaipur (1964). In addition to these, two more have been opened in Kerala and U. P. in 1972.

started with anthropological orientations but in course of time have adapted to the urgent need of policy research on tribal problems.

Some of the Institutes are headed by whole time Director/Principal, in others Deputy Director/Assistant Director or Chief Research Officers look after the Institute. In some of these Institutes, Secretary/Director, Tribal or Social Welfare, also acts as ex-officio Director.

The study team on Tribal Research Institutes[2] observes that the practice of giving Secretary/Director, Tribal or Social Welfare, ex-officio charge as the Director of the Institute in actual practice deprived the Institutes of research guidance. The Tribal Research Institutes have to function in coordination with the Tribal Welfare/Social Welfare Department. The degree of autonomy varied from state to state in all the states except one (Ahmedabad) which is not part of government.

Yehezkel Dror has suggested four fold criteria for organizational set up for Israeli Institute for Policy Research which also holds meaningful in case of Tribal Research Institutes' in the country.[3]

(1) The organizational set up should assure professional independence so as to minimize the dangers of adjustment of subject matter, analysis, findings and recommendations to the wishes of clientele or other interests.

(2) The organizational set up should assure relationships of mutual trust between various bodies engaged in policy making and the Institute.

(3) The organizational set up should assure close mutual relations and cooperations with other scientific and research institutions.

(4) The organizational set up should assure sufficient administrative independence from the government and from academic institutions alike.

Out of these four criteria atleast first three of them are seen within organisational set up of Tribal Research Institutes but question of administrative independence from the government seems irrelevant, as they are run under government hierarchy.

Main Purpose

The main purpose of Tribal Research Institutes is to intensify the application of scientific knowledge to the improvement of tribal welfare programmes through research and evaluations on tribal problems. Its main function is research into policy issues of significance in reference to planning

for socio-economic development for tribals by means of redefinition of issues for better consideration of the future of tribals and careful preparation of policy issues and formulation of plans.

These Institutes also organize training programmes for policy practitioners in tribal life and culture.

They also act centres of information on tribes and their welfare.

The Tribal Research Institutes through well developed research library, research publications and cultural wing maintain collaboration with sister research organisations at all the levels.

Scope of Activity

In the wake of Prime Minister's 20-point economic programme and under new strategy of integrated tribal development programme in Fifth Plan the role and function of these organisations have considerably been changed. Besides Scheduled Tribes, studies on Scheduled Castes and other weaker sections of the society have also been included in the scope of the research programme. The Ministry of Home Affairs, Government of India has directed these organisations to develop under four broad divisions viz. (1) Research, (2) Evaluation, (3) Training, and (4) Data Bank. To support the new strategy of tribal development, the Institutes would adopt inter-disciplinary approaches.

The scope of activity of these organisations comprises the entire range of policy making and all policy issues pertaining to tribal welfare, which because of their expertise, Data Banks and character would be treated and improved through the application of the orientations and methods of policy sciences and policy issues. The choice of subjects for research and development depends on size of staff, their knowledge and interest and priorities fixed by the government.

Organisational Methods

In the work of the Institutes there has been far reaching integration between applied and pure research. The various studies conducted by these Institutes have been of inter-disciplinary nature, the main aim being to improve policy making through field studies.

The heads of Tribal Research Institutes haves pecialisation in Anthropology or Sociology with background of a scientist and policy practitioner.

Such a rare combination provides them insight of handling scientific knowledge on the one hand and its application on the other.

These organisations which are fully equipped with advanced thinking, policy analysis, and field data necessary for any other similar research organisations. The studies are largely based on individual and team work. Institutes facing the task of solving new and emerging problems of tribals try to equip themselves at the organisational level; but distinction between academic and non-academic function is less developed and role of specialist is much less recognised. The result is that many of the talented either have moved to a position in industrial or university research organisation or try to rise to higher civil service salary levels.

For professional researchers working in these organisations it is difficult to rise to higher grades without assuming higher responsibilities, which severely limit the opportunities for research work. For many in these government research organisations, administration is natural out growth of their work. Increasingly social scientists becomes identified with organisation rather than his own professional work.[4]

With the unprecedented wave of tribal welfare programmes in the country, these organisations are going to restructure their organisational goals to cope with the emerging needs of developing weaker sections. It is being contemplated by the Ministry of Home Affairs that talented and experienced professionals working these organisations ever since its inception should not be inflicted by organisational problems, so that they may pursue professional scientific through better career line in administrative system.

Task for Research

The role of Tribal Research Institutes in a developing country like India can be viewed in terms of task they perform on behalf of the government. If knowledge is power and force of intellect greatest of all the forces, the excellence of these policy organisations would reflect the state of society in regard to the use of scientific findings for solving problems of weaker sections.

While research workers are growing in number but most of the research activities remain unpublished. It is in meeting such emergent tasks and in finding fresh solutions to the rising problems that our intellectual resources will be put to the maximum strain. Of course research and publication opportunities are good, but in fact publication rate for social

scientist is low. In a country which assigns top priority to development of weaker sections, these organisations will be called upon to perform the role of path finders.

Notes

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Sofi Ali

Where India Stands In Administrative Reforms

A Bibliographical Survey

ADMINISTRATIVE reforms committees and commissions play a very important role in examining the working of the administrative system and suggesting necessary changes to make the system smooth and effective. Appointment of the Committees and commissions has almost become a universal phenomenon. In India, where the state shifted its total emphasis from police state to the welfare state, the need for such committees and commissions cannot be over stated. In fact the Central and State Governments did appoint certain reforms committees and commissions during the last two and half decades of independence. This study is intended to briefly survey these efforts of the government and point out the strong and weak points for further efforts.

The need for reforms arise because of certain factors which are of critical importance for the effective functioning of administrative system. Firstly, in all transitional societies the administrative systems inherited the colonial background and are not able to meet the heavy demands of their respective societies. The inadequacy of the system is largely due to obsolete structures and outdated attitudes of the civil servants. This is one of the areas where reforms are warranted urgently. The success of administration depends on the conducive structures and rational attitudes of civil servants. Secondly, any administrative system has to operate within a given framework. The framework is provided in the shape of rules, regulations, procedures and methods which have a tendency to become rigid in the course of time.

* I am grateful to Shri G. Haragopal for his suggestions in the preparation of this article.

The rigidity in the rules and regulations does contribute for consistency and stability and provide a constant frame of reference for all the actions in the organisation. But the society in which the administrative system operates undergo a constant change involving a shift in the attitudes, demands and value structure. It is these dynamics which are largely responsible for the gap between bureaucracy and the society. If bureaucracy is to be tuned for the needs of the society, its functioning must be examined in the light of changes that are taking place in the environment. Thirdly, twentieth century has witnessed unprecedented explosion of knowledge. If this knowledge has to be harnessed for the benefit of humanity, it should be used as a constant input of administration. Utilisation of scientific knowledge calls for radical changes in the structure of administration. Fourthly, that a perfect system has not been evolved is accepted beyond any dispute. Therefore, the search for better methods is continuously on. The quest for reforms is one of the manifestations of human curiosity and self-confidence that they will be able to innovate better methods which will result in better performance.

In this attempt, the efforts made so far by the Central and State Governments in India in the area of admidistrative reforms is enumerated. In this context only those reports of the committees and commissions which have been submitted, published or mimeographed are taken into account. This bibliography excludes reports of constitutional commissions like Union Public Service Commission, Election Commission etc., and statutory commissions like the University Grants Commission, Atomic Energy Commission etc., and commissions which came into existence through executive order like Central Water and Power Commission. Further, it excludes reports of parliamentary committees like Public Accounts Committee, Estimates Committee, Committee on Public Undertakings etc. And enquiry commissions such as Mahajan Commission, Commission Against Pratap Singh Kairon are also excluded. It includes only such reports ot the committees and commissions appointed by Central and State Governments in India with the specific purpose of suggesting administrative reforms.

It should be mentioned that this is a mere bibliographical survey of administrative reforms committees and administrative reforms commissions appointed by the Government of India and State Governments which also include the committees appointed on Local Government, and it intends to indicate the broad trends in administrative reforms in India.

Sofi Ali

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Findings

The bibliography reveals that administrative reforms did receive the attention of both the Central and State Governments although their adequacy can be debated.

1. The appointment of the Administrative Reforms Commission in 1966 demonstrated the need for a comprehensive reforms in Indian administration. It is surprising that it took 19 years for the Indian government to think of a reforms commission which they should have done much earlier.
2. The appointment of Agricultural Commission after 20 years of independence is another proof of delayed decisions in view of the importance of agriculture in Indian economy.
3. The appointment of the Committee on Corruption after 17 years of independence was such a delayed decision that corruption acquired such a cancerous proportion that the report hardly any relevance or impact on the problem in the initial phase.

4. It is significant to note that the administration of the Union Territories has not received much attention of the Central Government, but for the single report of Administrative Reforms Commission of 1966.
5. In the field of State administration the efforts are not in proportion to the magnitude of the problem. However, the Government of Maharashtra and Gujarat devoted more attention to this problem than the other State Governments.
6. It should be pointed out that the various vital segments of State administration like police, health and irrgation are dangerously neglected.
7. Personnel managment at the State level did not receive the attention that they ought to have received.
8. The bibliography also reveals that no attempt has been made to study the district as a physical unit at national level.
9. Personnel and financial administrations at Central level have relatively received considerable attention.
10. The bibliography indicates that local self government in general and Panchayati Raj in particular claimed more attention of both the Central and State Governments when compared with the other areas of Indian administration.
11. The bibliography also indicates that there is not much literature dealing about the implementation of the reforms suggested. This leaves the student of public administration in a doubt as to what has been the impact of these reforms on the administrative set up.

Conclusion

Several administrative reforms committees' reports suggest some alterations here and some additions there. K. Hanumantiah commenting on administrative reforms rightly pointed out that, "during the last 20 years there were only adjustments and no reforms in the administration".[1] Few have gone deeper and examined the whole system of administration as such; almost all have been the prisoners of existing framework. The structures that we inherited did not undergo any fundamental transformation inspite of radical changes in the goal of administration.

The Administrative Reforms Commission which raised lot of hopes in the nation did not rise to the occasion. Majority of the reforms suggested by them suffer with the same old weaknesses and have no radical content.

The reforms revolved more around the structure than behavioural complexities of administration. Even the structural reforms they suggested do not have the radical content that they ought to have had. Thus the commission left much more to be accomplished.

Maheshwari, one of the students of administrative reforms in India, held this view that "need for changes in machinery of government and its personnel has been felt to be compelling. It is also equally clear that adhoc or peripheral administrative improvisations are doomed to be inconsequential, even futile and what is needed are basic changes in the system and spirit of the government as inherited from the British. Proper attitudes are to be cultivated by country's bureaucracy. This should synchronise with determination of governmental hierarchies as well as of business methods. In addition to structure and process, the contents of administration require to be determined much more rationally."[2]

Furthermore, any reforms if they are to be very effective, have got to take into account the sociological, political and economic factors which affect the administrative system at every point. Therefore, the reforms have to be comprehensive, intensive and radical. Otherwise, they tend to become more decoratory in nature and miss the substance and the contents. In other words if we are to escape the shallowness of reforms, the administrative phenomenon must be examined in a wider perspective.

Notes

1. *Hindustan Times*, New Delhi, 28 April, 1967.
2. S.R. Maheshwari, *Administrative Rcforms Commission* (*Agra* : Laxmi Narayan Agarwal, 1972), p. 9.

नीलम सूद

पुलिस प्रशासन एवं लोकमत

यह तथ्य बिना किसी विवाद के स्वीकार्य है कि पुलिस सेवाएं प्रत्येक काल एवं विश्व के सभी भागों में जटिलतम रही हैं। जन सेवा की अन्य कोई भी संस्था जनता की कटु आलोचनाओं से इतनी अधिक प्रहारित नहीं हुई जितनी कि कानून को लागू करने, नागरिकों की गतिविधियों पर निगरानी एवं कार्यकलाप व आचरण को प्रतिबन्धित करने वाली इकाई होती रही है। पुलिस प्रशासन चाहे जितना भी दक्ष-प्रदक्ष रहा हो किन्तु सम्बन्धित सभी व्यक्तियों को सन्तुष्ट करने में कभी समर्थ नहीं हो सका।[1] इसके अतिरिक्त भारतीय सन्दर्भ में पुलिस प्रशासन को ब्रिटिश प्रशासन की देन के रूप में विकृत स्वरूप ही मिला है।[2] इसीलिये भारतीय परिस्थितियों में यह स्वीकार्य है कि पुलिस प्रशासन के कार्यों का दक्षतापूर्ण प्रबन्ध इस बात पर निर्भर करता है कि जनता पुलिस को कितना उन्मुक्त सहयोग एवं समर्थन देती है।[3]

प्रस्तुत लेख का उद्देश्य भारतीय सन्दर्भ में पुलिस प्रशासन से सम्बन्धित लोकमत की स्थिति को समालोचित करना है जो कि स्वतंत्रता के बाद भी एक अपेक्षित गम्भीरता एवं अनपेक्षित उपेक्षा की स्थिति में बना हुआ है। पुलिस प्रशासन के बारे में जनसामान्य क्या सोचता है? कैसे विचार रखता है? जनसामान्य पुलिस से कैसे व्यवहार की अपेक्षा रखता है? दोनों वर्गों के पारस्परिक सम्बन्ध कैसे हैं? क्यों हैं? ऐसे ही कुछ प्रश्न इस सन्दर्भ में उठते उभरते हैं। लेख के प्रथम भाग में पुलिस एवं लोक सम्बन्धों की वर्तमान स्थिति का निरूपण है, द्वितीय भाग जनसामान्य की पुलिस के विरुद्ध शिकायतों से विवृत्त है तथा तृतीय एव अन्तिम भाग में दोनों वर्गों के पारस्परिक सम्बन्धों की स्थिति को समालोचित करते हुए सुझावों के कुछ विकल्प दिये गये हैं।

किसी भी शासन के स्थायित्व के सुदृढ़ीकरण में लोक विचार का सबसे बड़ा योगदान होता है। वही शासन को समर्थन एवं सहयोग दे कर उसे सामर्थ्यवान बनाता है तथा समर्थक विचार प्रभावशाली औचित्यता प्रदान करते हैं। जहां इस औचित्यता का अभाव होता है वहां शासन के प्रति एक आक्रोश की स्थिति देखी जा सकती है। ऐसा प्रतीत होता है कि भारतीय सन्दर्भ में जनसामान्य पुलिस प्रशासन के प्रति सहानुभूतिपूर्ण एवं मैत्री की दृष्टि नहीं रखता है।[4] साथ ही अपने इसी दृष्टिकोण के कारण नागरिक किसी भी स्तर पर पुलिस प्रशासन के

कार्यों को सहयोग एवं समर्थन देने को तैयार नहीं है। दूसरे शब्दों में पुलिस प्रशासन की प्रतिमा को जो विशिष्टता की स्थिति स्वतंत्रता के बाद प्राप्त करनी चाहिये थी सम्भवतः वह एक संक्रमणकालीन दौर से गुजर रही है।[5] सामान्य जनता पुलिस अधिकारियों के व्यवहार, कार्य-प्रक्रिया, प्रणाली, शक्ति के प्रयोग एवं आचरण के सम्बन्ध में विशेष शिकायतें रखती हैं।[6] एक प्रजातान्त्रिक एवं लोक कल्याणकारी राज्य में पुलिस सेवाओं को जनसामान्य द्वारा जिस प्रकार स्वीकारा जाना चाहिये, उसे उपलब्ध करने में भारतीय पुलिस की स्थिति कुछ समस्याओं से ग्रसित रही है। जैसे जहां शहरीकरण, औद्योगीकरण एवं शैक्षणिक संस्थाओं का प्रसार एवं विस्तार होता जा रहा है वहां उसी अनुपात में सत्ता-जन्य एवं सत्ता-प्राप्त संस्थाएं अपने प्रति सम्मान एवं सहानुभूति की स्थिति खोती जा रही हैं। यद्यपि नवीनतम अनुसंधान ये सिद्ध करते हैं कि पुलिस के कार्यों का एक बहुत बड़ा भाग अपराधी कार्यों की प्रकृति से सम्बन्धित नहीं रहा।[7] जनसामान्य के सम्पर्क में अधिकांशतः वह कार्यकारी कर्तव्यों की आपूर्ति के दौरान आता है, इस स्थिति के बावजूद भी जनसामान्य ने इस संस्था को एक समाजसेवी के रूप में नहीं स्वीकारा। आधुनिक समाज व्यवस्था में जनसामान्य का एक बहुत बड़ा वर्ग अपने व्यवहार के प्रति किसी भी नियन्त्रित करने वाले घटक के प्रति आक्रोशित होता है इसीलिए समाज के इस स्वरूप में पुलिस के कार्य और भी जटिल हो गये है।

पुलिस के नैतिक आचरण से सम्बन्धित पक्ष जनसामान्य की आलोचना का केन्द्र रहा है। यद्यपि इस स्थिति में सुधार हेतु पुलिस अधिकारियों द्वारा कुछ प्रयास किये गये हैं किन्तु इस समस्या के निराकरण हेतु निरन्तर एवं विशिष्ट प्रयासों की आवश्यकता है। जहां तक पुलिस प्रशासन के व्यावहारिक पक्ष का सम्बन्ध है इस सम्बन्ध में किया गया सर्वेक्षण[8] ये निष्कर्ष प्रदान करता है कि भारतीय समाज में पुलिस प्रशासन की प्रतिमा एक उपयोगी सहयोगी मित्र के रूप में प्रस्थापित नहीं हो सकी। स्वतन्त्रता प्राप्ति के पूर्व भारतीय पुलिस दमनकारी, भयंकर, विरोधी एवं शोषक संस्था की प्रतीक थी। स्वतंत्रता के पश्चात् पुलिस प्रशासन की इस प्रतिमा में एक क्रांतिकारी परिवर्तन अपेक्षित था। यद्यपि पुलिस प्रशासन के कार्यों में, दर्शन में, साधनों में पर्याप्त अन्तर देखा जा सकता है किन्तु फिर भी वह एक सकारात्मक रूप में नहीं स्वीकारी जा सकी। इस सम्बन्ध में किये गये कुछ अध्ययन वैचारिक स्पष्टता प्रदान करते हैं।[9]

II

भारतीय पुलिस प्रशासन ने जनसामान्य से वैचारिक एवं व्यावहारिक स्तर पर जो अनुभव प्राप्त किया, वह केवल भारतीय एवं सामयिक परिस्थितियों का ही परिणाम नहीं है अपितु विश्व के सभी राष्ट्रों में पुलिस की प्रतिमा से सम्बन्धित वस्तुस्थिति से जुड़ा हुआ है। यहां एक अन्य प्रश्न उठता है कि इस सामाजिक 'अप्रियता' अथवा 'पर्याप्त लोकप्रियता' न पाने के क्या कारण रहे हैं। इस सम्बन्ध में विभिन्न कारणों को श्रेणीगत किया जा सकता है। कुछ ऐसे हैं जिनके लिये पुलिस प्रशासन स्वयं जिम्मेदार है तथा अन्य जिनके लिये जनसामान्य स्वयं ही उत्तरदायी है। अन्त में कुछ कारण ऐसे भी है जिनके लिये दोनों ही पक्षों में से कोई भी वर्ग जिम्मेदार नहीं ठहराया जा सकता है।

जहां तक पुलिस का सम्बन्ध है जनसामान्य की सर्वाधिक शिकायतें पुलिस अधिकारियों के व्यवहार एवं आचरण से सम्बन्धित रही हैं। अधिकांश व्यक्ति पुलिस अधिकारियों के अनुदारतापूर्ण व्यवहार, शक्ति के समुचित प्रयोग व न्यायपूर्वक समस्या का समाधान न प्राप्त करने के कारण पुलिस को अपनी आलोचना का केन्द्र बनाते रहे हैं। रॉयल कमीशन ने अपने अध्ययन के दौरान जनसामान्य की शिकायतें निम्न विषयों पर प्रमुख रूप से पाई है।[10]

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यह स्थिति दर्शाती हैं कि पुलिस द्वारा पर्याप्त सामाजिक लोकप्रियता प्राप्त न करने के कारण उसके कार्यों की प्रकृति नही है अपितु वह व्यवहार है जिसका भागीदार जनसामान्य बनता है तथा कार्य का वह तरीका है जिससे जनसामान्य प्रभावित होता है। यही तत्व उसे लोकप्रिय तथा अलोकप्रिय बनाने में सहायक होते हैं।

पुलिस प्रशासन पर भ्रष्टाचार का आरोप भी समय-समय पर जनसामान्य द्वारा लगता रहा है। यद्यपि स्वतन्त्रता से पूर्व तो पुलिस प्रशासन भ्रष्टाचार जैसे दोष से अत्यधिक ग्रसित था किन्तु यह तथ्य बिना किसी विवाद के नहीं स्वीकारा जा सकता कि वर्तमान में भी यह दोष उसी मात्रा में बना हुआ है। भारतीय पुलिस आयोग ने अपने प्रतिवेदन में यह स्वीकारा था कि जहां-जहां वे गये उन्हें सरकारी अधिकारियों, गैर-सरकारी अधिकारियों, भारतीयों, यूरोपियों सभी के द्वारा पुलिस के भ्रष्टाचार की शिकायत प्राप्त हुई। यह स्वीकार्य है कि सिपाही समाज के जिस वर्ग से आता है उसकी विशेषताएं उसमें आनी स्वाभाविक हैं। भ्रष्टाचार भी उसी का एक अंग है।[11] वर्तमान में भी पुलिस प्रशासन इस आक्षेप से पूर्णतः मुक्त नहीं हो पाया। पुलिस प्रशासन की इस दुर्बलता को तब तक दूर नहीं किया जा सकता जब तक कि पुलिस सेवी-वर्ग गरीबी एवं न्यून वेतनमानों की स्थिति में रह रहा है।

जनसामान्य के बीच पुलिस प्रशासन की अप्रियता का एक घटक यह भी रहा है कि पुलिस जनसामान्य के जीवन एवं सम्पत्ति रक्षा से सम्बन्धित कदम समय पर नहीं उठा पाती अथवा पर्याप्त कार्यवाही नहीं करती। यद्यपि यह सही है कि कुछ घटनाओं में पुलिस पर्याप्त सुरक्षा व्यवस्था करने का प्रयास नहीं करती अथवा सफलता प्राप्त नहीं कर पाती। परिणामतः सम्बन्धित व्यक्ति सम्पूर्ण विभाग की तस्वीर को मलिन करने का प्रयास करता है। ध्यान देने योग्य बात यह है कि पुलिस संगठन के आधार पर कार्य करती है जब कि जनता उसका मूल्यांकन व्यक्तिगत व्यवहार एवं अपनी अपेक्षाओं की पूर्ति के आधार पर करती है।[12]

पुलिस प्रशासन एवं लोकमत

पुलिस प्रशासन से सम्बन्धित एक त्रासदी यह रही है कि पुलिस अधिकारी सभी अपराधी घटनाओं को अंकित नहीं करते हैं, जिससे वे अपने रिकार्ड के माध्यम से यह दिखा सकें कि अपराध स्थिति पर पुलिस का पर्याप्त नियन्त्रण है। गणना के इस सैद्धान्तिक आधार पर व्यावहारिक जिम्मेदारी से बचने का प्रयास किया जाता है। अनेकों बार खोई हुई सम्पत्ति के बारे में पर्याप्त प्रमाण न होने के आधार पर अथवा पुष्ट आधारों के अभाव के आधार पर घटनाओं को अंकित नहीं किया जाता। स्वाभाविक है कि ऐसी स्थिति में सम्बन्धित व्यक्ति के मन में आक्रोश की भावना पनपेगी।[13]

शक्ति का प्रयोग कब, कैसे व कितना किया जाये, यह स्थिति की उग्रता पर निर्भर करता है। पुलिस अधिकारी अनेकों बार उत्तेजनापूर्ण स्थितियों में संतुलित निर्णय नहीं ले पाते और स्थिति पर नियन्त्रण पाने हेतु शक्ति का आवश्यकता से अधिक प्रयोग कर बैठते हैं जिसके कारण भी पुलिस प्रशासन को आलोचित होना पड़ता है।[14]

पुलिस प्रशासन को अपने कार्यकारी स्तर पर भी आक्षेपित होना पड़ा है। यद्यपि पुलिस प्रशासन की दक्षता पर किसी भी प्रकार का आक्षेप लगाने से पहले हमें हमारे उपलब्ध साधनों पर भी पर्याप्त दृष्टिपात करना होगा किन्तु इस स्थिति के बावजूद भी पुलिस प्रशासन यदि उपलब्ध एवं निश्चित साधनों का पर्याप्त उपयोग कर तथा इस सम्बन्ध में विशेष प्रयास करे तो इस निर्बलता को दूर किया जा सकता है। इस सम्बन्ध में प्रशासन कार्य में शीघ्रता, पर्याप्त सुरक्षा व्यवस्था, अपराधों का समुचित वर्गीकरण, उनकी प्राथमिकताओं का निश्चितीकरण तथा उचित संचार-व्यवस्था के माध्यम से शिकायतों के इस कारण को दूर किया जा सकता है।[15]

कानून एवं व्यवस्था बनाये रखने के लिये पुलिस को कभी-कभी सभाओं, जुलूस व हड़ताल जैसी स्थितियों को भी नियन्त्रित करना पड़ता है। इन स्थितियों में पुलिस से विशेष संतुलित निर्णयों एवं क्रियाओं की अपेक्षा की जाती है। अन्यथा पुलिस के कुछ साधन, जैसे लाठी तथा अश्रु गैस का प्रयोग शक्ति के दुरुपयोग की श्रेणी में आलोचित किये जायेंगें।[16]

तथ्यों के स्वेच्छापूर्वक निर्माण का आक्षेप भी पुलिस प्रशासन पर समय-समय पर लगता रहा है। पुलिस अधिकारी दोषसिद्धि के लिये विभिन्न तथ्यों को मनमाने ढंग से तोड़मरोड़ कर प्रस्तुत करते हैं। जनसामान्य की एक अनुभूति यह भी है कि पुलिस अधिकारी प्रशंसा एवं विशिष्ट सेवा स्थिति की प्राप्ति के लिये विशेष जाँच कार्य करते हैं जिसके मध्य निर्दोष व्यक्ति को अभियुक्त बना कर पेश किया जाता है।[17] यद्यपि इस तथ्य को अस्वीकार नहीं किया जा सकता कि पुलिस हमेशा इसी लक्ष्य पूर्ति में नहीं लगी रहती, अपितु कई बार तो कानूनी स्थितियों की पूर्ति के लिये पुलिस को ऐसे कदम उठाने पड़ते हैं, और चूंकि अपराधी एवं अपराध स्थिति पर नियन्त्रण की पूरी जिम्मेदारी पुलिस की ही होती है, अतः कई बार मजबूरी में उन्हें ऐसे कदम उठाने पड़ते हैं। इस स्थिति के बावजूद भी इन साधनों की औचित्यता सिद्ध नहीं होती। यदि कानून कष्टदायक है तो सामाजिक लक्ष्यों की प्राप्ति के लिये उसे सुधारा जाना

चाहिये ।[18] इस प्रकार के गैर-जिम्मेदार साधनों द्वारा कानूनी प्रकिया की पूर्ति करना पुलिस के लिये उचित नहीं है । पुलिस का उत्तरदायित्व तो केवल इतना है कि वह तथ्यों की खोज करे एवं उपलब्ध तथ्यों को प्रस्तुत करे । पुलिस प्रशासन को यह स्वीकार करना चाहिये कि तथ्यों को स्वयं निर्मित कर प्रस्तुत करना उनका कार्य नहीं है । पुलिस के इस प्रकार के अनावश्यक कार्य, जनता का विश्वास एवं सम्मान खो देते हैं ।

पुलिस के विरुद्ध कुछ गहन अनुभूत शिकायतें अशिष्ट व्यवहार से सम्बन्धित रही हैं । अधिकारियों द्वारा असभ्य एवं अशिष्ट व्यवहार का प्रभाव जनता एवं पुलिस के उन्मुक्त पारस्परिक मेल-मिलाप में एक बड़ी बाधा की तरह उपस्थित होता है । यही कारण है कि जनता पुलिस स्टेशन तक उपयोगी से उपयोगी सूचना पहुँचाने में भी सकुचाती है । जब कि पुलिस से तो यहां तक अपेक्षा की जाती है कि वह जनता के व्यर्थ एवं गैर-जिम्मेदार प्रश्नों के जवाब भी शिष्टता के साथ दे । किसी सूचना के प्रतिशेध के मध्य भी भाषा में विनम्रता होनी चाहिये ।[19]

इस सम्बन्ध में कुछ कारण ऐसे भी रहे हैं, जिनके लिये जनता स्वयं अथवा उसका आचरण, व्यवहार एवं वैचारिक परिवेश जिम्मेदार ठहराया जा सकता है । पुलिस प्रशासन के क्षेत्र में पुलिस प्रतिमा स्वतन्त्रता-पूर्व काल में पूर्णतः नकारात्मक मिली है ।[20] अधिकांश जनता पुलिस को अभी भी उसी रूप में देखती है । यद्यपि उसकी ये पूर्वधारणायें अन्यायोचित हैं क्योंकि पुलिस का कार्यक्षेत्र, लक्ष्य, साधन सभी कुछ परिवर्तित हो चुके हैं किन्तु परिवर्तित परिवेश के अन्तर्गत भी जनता पुलिस की नई भूमिका को नहीं स्वीकार पाई है । यही कारण है कि वह उसे अपने सहयोगी एवं मित्र के रूप में न देखकर एक विरोधी अथवा 'शक्ति के एजेन्ट' के रूप में देखती है । इसके अतिरिक्त जनसामान्य अपने अधिकारों के प्रति तो अधिक सचेष्ट है, अपने कर्तव्यों के प्रति नहीं । पुलिस द्वारा जब उसकी इस स्थिति को नियन्त्रित करने का प्रयास किया जाता है तो जनसामान्य उसे अपनी स्वतन्त्रता पर एक आघात समझ आलोचित करता है । कारण सम्भवतः यह है कि हम प्रजातन्त्र के वास्तविक रूप से अवगत नहीं हो पाये हैं तथा उसे समग्र रूप से अपना नहीं सके हैं । पुलिस प्रशासन इन्हीं प्रतिदर्शों में विद्यमान व्यक्तियों के लिये आलोचना, मनोरंजन एवं वाक-व्यवहार का एक आधार बना लिया गया है ।[21] ब्रिटिश जनता ने जहाँ एक ओर अपने पुलिस प्रशासन को यह विश्वास दिलवाया था कि उनका पुलिस प्रशासन विश्व में सर्वश्रेष्ठ प्रशासन है, वहाँ भारतीय व्यवस्था में जनता पुलिस को अपना विश्वास देने में समर्थ नहीं हो सकी ।[22] यहाँ तक कि पुलिस ने यदि जन-कल्याण हेतु कुछ विशेष परिनियमों को लागू करने का प्रयास किया तो भी पुलिस आलोचना का केन्द्र बनी । सामाजिक व्यवस्थापन के दौरान छूआछूत, मद्य-निषेध आदि परिनियमों को लागू करते समय भी पुलिस प्रशासन की कटु आलोचना की गई, क्योंकि समाज का एक बहुत बड़ा वर्ग अभी तक अपने संस्कारों में इन सुधारों को आत्मसात नहीं कर पाया । जनता को परिवर्तित परिवेश में यह भी समझना होगा कि जनता के सहयोग के बिना पुलिस कोई भी कार्य सफलतापूर्वक नहीं कर सकती, इसलिये पुलिस से सम्बन्धित दृष्टिकोण बदलना होगा ।

एक ओर तो जनता में ये प्रवृत्ति बढ़ती जा रही है कि पुलिस जनता के लक्ष्यों की पूर्ति में सहायक इकाई की तरह कार्य करे किन्तु उल्लेखनीय है कि पुलिस केवल कानून एवं नियमों के अनुरूप ही कार्य कर सकती है। किन्तु जनता कम-से-कम कानूनी प्रक्रियाओं के माध्यम से अपनी लक्ष्य पूर्ति चाहती है क्योंकि कानूनी प्रक्रियाओं को वह लम्बा, खर्चीला एवं समस्याजनक पाती है। ऐसी स्थिति में पुलिस एवं जनता में पारस्परिक विरुद्धता की स्थिति आनी स्वाभाविक है। जनसामान्य की एक अनुचित अपेक्षा पुलिस से आमतौर पर यह रहती है कि जनता अपनी प्रार्थित शिकायतों के निर्णयात्मक परिणाम तुरन्त प्राप्त करना चाहती है। किन्तु ऐसे समय में सम्बन्धित व्यक्ति यह भूल जाता है कि निर्णयात्मक स्थिति तक पहुँचने के लिये एक निर्धारित विधि के पूर्ण होने पर ही निर्णय लिया जा सकता है।

उपर्युक्त कारणों के अतिरिक्त कुछ कारण ऐसे भी हैं जिनके लिये न तो जनसामान्य को जिम्मेदार ठहराया जा सकता है और न ही पुलिस प्रशासन को। इन कारणों का निराकरण भी उचित शैक्षणिक व्यवस्था के माध्यम से ही किया जा सकता है। उदाहरण के लिये, एक अशिक्षित व्यक्ति के सुरक्षा के अधिकार पर चोट होती है तो वह जिस कानूनी प्रक्रिया के माध्यम से अपना अधिकार प्राप्त कर सकता है, उससे समुचित रूप से अवगत नहीं होता। अपनी शिकायत के तुरन्त पश्चात वह उस पर कार्यवाही चाहता है; पुलिस अधिकारियों द्वारा ईमानदारीपूर्वक कार्य करने पर भी यह सम्भव नहीं हो पाता और इसके लिये भी उन्हें आलोचित होना पड़ता है। इसके लिये पुलिस को चाहिये कि उस अशिक्षित व्यक्ति की कठिनाई को समझते हुये उसे अनुकूल व्यवहार एवं न्याय-पूर्ण कार्यवाही का विश्वास एवं आश्वासन देकर सन्तुष्ट करे। इससे यह समस्या स्वतः सुलझ सकती है। किन्तु त्रासदी यह है व्यावहारिक शिक्षण का अभाव दोनों ही वर्गों में बना हुआ है। इस सम्बन्ध में पुलिस अधिकारियों को प्रशिक्षण के समय इस पहलू पर विशेष ध्यान दिया जाना चाहिये।

कानून के कुछ प्रावधान भी स्थितियों को ज्यादा जटिल बनाते हैं। अपराधों को 'काबिले दस्त अन्दाजी' एवं 'ना काबिले दस्त अन्दाजी' श्रेणियों में रखा गया है। ना काबिले दस्त अन्दाजी की श्रेणी में आने वाले अपराधों के विरुद्ध पुलिस कोई भी शीघ्र एवं कठोर कार्यवाही अपराधी के विरुद्ध करने में सक्षम नहीं होती।[23] ये स्थिति समाज विरोधी तत्वों को पनपाने में तो सहायक होती है, साथ ही पुलिस-प्रतिमा पर चोट भी होती है। अपेक्षित यह है कि इनके श्रेणी विभाजन पर पुनः दृष्टिपात किया जाये।[24] इस प्रकार अपराधों से सम्बन्धित लम्बी न्यायालय प्रक्रिया पुलिस एवं सामान्य व्यक्ति दोनों के लिये ही समस्या-जनक एवं कष्टदायक है।

जांच-व्यवस्था के भी अनेक घटक ऐसे हैं जिनके कारण पुलिस को व्यर्थ ही आक्षेपित किया जाता है। प्रार्थी जांच से सन्तुष्ट नहीं हो पाता क्योंकि उसके पास ऐसा कोई साधन नहीं है जिससे वह यह जान सके कि जांच सही तरीके से एवं सही परिप्रेक्ष्य में की गई है। दूसरी

ग्रोर जांच कार्य स्वतन्त्र इकाई को नहीं सौंपा जाता, फलतः जांच ग्रधिकारी ग्रथवा संस्था विभिन्न दवाबों की भागीदार बनती है। इस प्रकार की जांच की वर्तमान पद्धति जनता के विश्वास को जीतने में ग्रसफल रही है। ये व्यवस्था न केवल पुलिस के विरुद्ध ग्रफवाहें फैलाने में सहायक रही है ग्रपितु ग्रन्य प्रश्नों पर भी पुलिस के प्रमाणीकरण की स्थिति को कमजोर बनाती है।[25]

III

पुलिस प्रशासन के प्रति रोष एवं ग्रसन्तोष की इस स्थिति को निराकृत करने के लिये वांछनीय एवं निरन्तर प्रयास ग्रपेक्षित है। भारतीय समाज में पुलिस ग्रभी भी एक नितान्त ग्रलगाव के साथ कार्य कर रही है ग्रौर इसके ग्रधिकांश कार्य जनता का समर्थन एवं सहानुभूति प्राप्त नहीं कर पाते। यद्यपि पुलिस समाज का ही एक ग्रंग है किन्तु फिर भी समाज का ग्रधि-कांश वर्ग उसे इस रूप में नहीं स्वीकार पाता। इस सम्बन्ध में पुलिस को भी यह स्वीकार करना चाहिये कि उसके कार्यों का प्रभावशाली प्रबन्ध इस बात पर निर्भर करता है कि जनता उन्हें किस सीमा तक स्वीकार करती है एवं समर्थित करती है। यह इस बात पर निर्भर करता है कि पुलिस जनता का कितना विश्वास एवं ग्रादर प्राप्त कर पाती है तथा उसी ग्रनुपात में पुलिस को ग्रपने उत्तरदायित्व पूर्ति में कम-से-कम दबाव एवं शक्ति का प्रयोग करना पड़ेगा।[26]

इसी पहलू से जुड़ा हुग्रा एक प्रश्न यह है कि जन-सहयोग एवं जन-समर्थन कैसे प्राप्त किया जाये ? इसके लिये पुलिस प्रशासन, कार्यदर्शन एवं प्रणाली सभी में ग्राद्योपान्त एवं समग्र परिवर्तन ग्रावश्यक हैं जिसके लिये एक पुलिस ग्रधिकारी के व्यवहार एवं ग्राचरण से लेकर सेवावर्ग से सम्बन्धित नीतियों एवं जांच इकाइयों, सभी की स्थिति पर एक पुनर्दृष्टि वांछनीय होगी।

सुधारों के क्षेत्र में सर्वोच्च प्राथमिकता सेवा-वर्ग के ग्राचार-व्यवहार को दी जानी चाहिये। विनम्रता, शिष्टता एवं सभ्यता पुलिस प्रशासन के सेवी वर्ग में एक विशिष्ट गुण की भांति विकसित की जाये[27] ताकि सम्पर्क में ग्राने वाला व्यक्ति पुलिस को ग्रपने मित्र एवं सहयोगी के रूप में स्वीकार कर सके।[28] इस बुराई को दूर करने के लिये एक निरन्तर प्रभावशाली नियन्त्रण की ग्रावश्यकता है। पुलिस प्रशासन के उच्चाधिकारियों की यह जिम्मेदारी है कि उनके ग्रधीन ग्रधिकारियों का व्यवहार जनसामान्य की शिकायतों का कारण न बने। उच्चाधिकारी एक विशिष्ट स्तर से सम्बन्धित होते हैं तथा विशेष प्रशिक्षण भी प्राप्त करते हैं, उन्हें चाहिये कि वे व्यर्थ की निन्दाग्रों एवं ग्रालोचनाग्रों से परे रहते हुये ग्रपने ग्राधीन ग्रधिकारियों पर पर्याप्त नियन्त्रण रखें, समय-समय पर उनके कार्यों का निरीक्षण करें, उनके ग्राचरण को कठोरता से निरीक्षित करें, परीक्षित करें ग्रौर उसी के ग्रनुरूप दण्ड ग्रथवा पारितोषिक दें। इसके ग्रतिरिक्त उच्चाधिकारी बिना किसी पूर्व-सूचना के पुलिस स्टेशनों पर जायें तथा जनसामान्य से सीधे सम्पर्क कर वास्तविक स्थिति से ग्रवगत हों। इससे न सिर्फ

अधीन अधिकारी वर्ग सचेत होकर कार्य करेगा बल्कि समस्याओं के वास्तविक धरातल तक सफलतापूर्वक पहुँचा जा सकेगा।

नियन्त्रण एवं जांच कार्य के अतिरिक्त आचरण में परिवर्तन हेतु अधिकारियों के प्रशिक्षण काल के दौरान भी विशेष ध्यान देना वांछनीय होगा। सिपाही वर्ग के प्रशिक्षण के दौरान अभी तक उसके नकारात्मक दायित्व पर अधिक बल दिया जाता है अर्थात अपराध और अपराधी से निपटने की तकनीक पर अधिक ध्यान केन्द्रित किया जाता है। किन्तु सभ्य एवं संभ्रात वर्ग के व्यक्तियों से कैसा व्यवहार किया जाय, ऐसे विषय लगभग उपेक्षित से दिखाई देते हैं।[29] सिपाही वर्ग के प्रशिक्षण काल में इस ओर विशेष ध्यान दिया जाना चाहिये क्योंकि दिन-प्रतिदिन के कार्यों में जनता का अधिकांश वर्ग सिपाही के ही सम्पर्क में आता है और उसी के व्यवहार के आधार पर व्यक्ति सारे विभाग की प्रतिमा निर्मित करता है।[30] इसलिये उसके प्रशिक्षण काल के समय इस पहलू पर पर्याप्त ध्यान दिया जाना चाहिये।

सेवी-वर्ग से सम्बन्धित एक अन्य सुधार वेतनमान एवं सेवा शर्तों को आकर्षित बनाकर योग्य व्यक्तियों को इस कार्य की ओर आकर्षित किया जा सकता है। साथ ही इसके माध्यम से समुचित कार्य परिणाम भी प्राप्त किये जा सकते हैं।

प्रयासों की इस कड़ी में जांच पद्धति में भी सुधारों की एक कड़ी जोड़ी जानी चाहिये। वर्तमान व्यवस्था में अधिकांश राज्यों के अधीनस्थ अधिकारियों की जांच विभागीय अधिकारियों द्वारा ही की जाती है। इस सम्बन्ध में एक तर्क यह दिया जाता है कि एक उच्च पुलिस अधिकारी द्वारा अपने ही विभाग के अधीन अधिकारी की जांच करते समय कुछ व्यक्तिगत विचारधाराएं उसमें अवश्य जुड़ी होंगी। इसलिये या तो अधिकारी अपनी जांच कार्य के मध्य ज्यादा कठोरता बरतेगा या अनावश्यक उदारता। कोई भी पुलिस अधिकारी अपनी जांच के दौरान या तो व्यर्थ की कठोरता का शिकार होगा या उदारता का लाभ उठायेगा। इसके अतिरिक्त न्याय-न्याय के लिये ही होना चाहिये। साथ ही, यदि वास्तव में न्याय किया गया है तो यह दिखाई भी देना चाहिये। इसलिये यह आवश्यक हो जाता है कि पुलिस के विरुद्ध शिकायतों की जांच, विभाग के बाहर किसी अन्य संस्था या जिम्मेदार अधिकारी को सौपीं जाये।[31]

इस स्थिति की स्वीकारोक्ति के बावजूद भी रॉयल कमीशन ने बाहरी संस्था की जाँच-व्यवस्था को पूर्णतः नहीं स्वीकार किया क्योंकि यह जांच-व्यवस्था पूर्णतः सन्तोषजनक नहीं कही जा सकती। उत्तर प्रदेश में सिपाही वर्ग के विरुद्ध स्वेच्छाचारिता की शिकायतों की जांच की गई। किन्तु जब इसी योजना की जांच उत्तर प्रदेश आयोग ने की तो स्थिति भिन्न पाई गयी। प्रथम जांच के दौरान 22.5 प्रतिशत से 26.5 प्रतिशत शिकायतें सही पाई गयी थी, जबकि आयोग ने अपनी जांच के समय यह पाया कि सही शिकायतें इतने कम प्रतिशत में इसलिये नहीं हैं कि शेष शिकायतें झूठी थीं; बल्कि अधिकांश शिकायतों के असफल होने का कारण यह था कि पुलिस अधिकारी के विरुद्ध प्रामाणिक तथ्यों को प्राप्त करना समस्याजनक

बन जाता है। इसलिये पुलिस के विरुद्ध शिकायत लाचार होने पर ही की जा सकती है। इसके अतिरिक्त जनता यह अनुभव करती है कि जांच अधिकारी स्वयं विभाग का ही एक व्यक्ति है।[32]

इस विवरण से यह निष्कर्ष निकलता है कि जनता की पुलिस के विरुद्ध शिकायतों के निराकरण के लिए पुलिस अधिकारियों की ही कोई इकाई प्रार्थी को सन्तुष्ट नहीं कर सकती। सम्भवतः जांच कार्य में एक स्वतन्त्र इकाई का अस्तित्व, जनता का विश्वास जीतने में अधिक सहायक होगा। साथ ही यदि किसी प्रार्थी की शिकायत पर निष्पक्षतापूर्वक विचार किया जाये तो एक तो विभाग स्वयं अपनी वास्तविक स्थिति के बारे में स्पष्ट हो सकेगा तथा अपने विरुद्ध पक्षपात के लगाये जाने वाले आरोपों से बच सकेगा और जनता एवं प्रशासन के बीच पारस्परिक विश्वास एवं सम्मान की स्थिति को पा सकेगा।[33]

जांच-प्रक्रिया के दौरान अधिकांश जांच कार्यों में बहुत अधिक समय लगा दिया जाता है, जो कि व्यर्थ के सन्देहों को जन्म देता है। इस लम्बे समय के दौरान दोनों ही पक्ष जांच कार्य से सम्बन्धित इकाई पर अनुचित प्रभाव डालने का प्रयास करते हैं। अतः जांच कम-से-कम समय में एक सरल प्रक्रिया के माध्यम से की जानी चाहिए तथा शिकायतों के सन्तोषजनक निराकरण के लिए सैद्धान्तिक आधार स्पष्ट होने चाहिये। इसके अतिरिक्त अधिकांश शिकायत-प्रार्थी इससे अवगत नहीं होते कि किस प्रक्रिया के माध्यम से जांच की जायेगी। इसलिये विभाग में इससे सम्बन्धित एक छोटी पत्रिका, जिसमें सारी प्रक्रिया उचित रूप से वर्णित हो, प्रयोग में लायी जाये एवं शिकायत-प्रार्थी को भी वह दी जाये ताकि व्यर्थ की भ्रान्तियाँ न बनी रहें।

जनसामान्य का सहयोग एवं समर्थन पाने के लिए जिला-स्तर पर एक पुलिस एवं जन-सम्पर्क अधिकारी की व्यवस्था भी उपयोगी हो सकती है अथवा एक ऐसी समिति निर्मित की जाये जिसमें जिला-स्तर पर कुछ पुलिस अधिकारी एवं जिले के कुछ अन्य सम्मानित व्यक्ति हों, ताकि ये जनसामान्य की शिकायतों एवं उनके निराकरण के लिये व्यवस्थित सुझाव दे सकें। इससे पुलिस को जनता के एवं जनता को पुलिस के निकट सम्पर्क में आने का अवसर मिलेगा और वे परस्पर एक दूसरे की समस्याओं को समझ सकेंगे।

एक अन्य पहलू पर भी पर्याप्त ध्यान दिया जाना चाहिये कि पुलिस प्रशासन को राजनीतिक हस्तक्षेप से मुक्त कर स्वतन्त्रता एवं निष्पक्षतापूर्वक कार्य करने के अवसर दिये जायें। प्रदक्ष एवं कुशल पुलिस प्रशासन के लिये सबसे बड़ी बाधा राजनीतिक हस्तक्षेप है जो कि समय-समय पर न्यूनाधिक होता रहता है और विभाग की विभिन्न शाखाओं को प्रभावित करता है। सत्ताधारी दल अपने दल के हित के अनुरूप पुलिस प्रशासन पर दबाव डालता है और विरोधी दल भी उस पर अपने अनुरूप प्रभाव डालना चाहते हैं। परिणाम यह होता है कि कानून की समुचित क्रियान्विति नहीं हो पाती और पुलिस जनता की आलोचना का कारण बनती है एवं अपनी ईमानदारी एवं लक्ष्यगत आधारों के प्रति सन्देह जगाती है।[34]

संक्षेप में यह कहा जा सकता है कि भारत में पुलिस प्रशासन एवं लोक सम्बन्धों की स्थिति सन्तोषजनक नहीं है। सम्भवतः जनसामान्य आज भी पुलिस को एक दमन के साधन के रूप में देखता है।[35] न केवल समाज के एक वर्ग ने, अपितु सभी वर्गों द्वारा पुलिस प्रशासन को आलोचित किया जाता रहा है। राजनीतिज्ञों ने अपने स्वार्थ हेतु आलोचित किया तो समाचार पत्रों ने जनसामान्य की भावनाओं को उभारने के लिये, वकीलों ने अपने अपराधी मुवक्किलों को जिताने के लिये, व्यापारी वर्ग अपनी स्वार्थ रक्षा हेतु आलोचित करता रहा तो विद्यार्थी वर्ग ने अपने उत्तेजनापूर्ण क्षणों में पुलिस को अपना विरोधी पाने के कारण आलोचित किया और अन्त में सड़क पर चलने वाले हर नागरिक सिपाही वर्ग के अशिष्ट व असभ्य व्यवहार का भागीदार बनने के कारण पुलिस प्रतिमा बिगाड़ता रहा। सम्भवतः समाज का कोई भी वर्ग ऐसा नहीं रहा जिसकी सहानुभूति एवं सहयोग पुलिस प्रशासन पा सका हो।

पुलिस की कटुतम आलोचना सर्वथा निराधार नहीं कही जा सकती। पुलिस प्रशासन में भ्रष्टचार देश के सभी भागों में फैला हुआ है[36] किन्तु फिर भी इस तथ्य को नकारा नहीं जा सकता कि प्रशासन के दूसरे विभागों में भी भ्रष्टाचार एवं बेईमानी के तत्व पले हुये हैं, पर फिर भी वे जनता की उतनी कटुतम आलोचना का आधार नहीं बने। सारा का सारा विष वमन पुलिस के विरुद्ध ही क्यों किया जाता है।[37]

इन सभी स्थितियों की स्वीकारोक्ति के बावजूद पुलिस प्रशासन को अपनी प्रतिमा को सुधारने के विशेष प्रयास अपेक्षित है। निष्कर्षतः यह विचार स्थिर किया जा सकता है कि पुलिस प्रशासन एवं जनसामान्य के पारस्परिक अच्छे सम्बन्ध ही कानून एवं व्यवस्था बनाये रखने में एक महत्वपूर्ण साधन सिद्ध हो सकते हैं।

टिप्पणियाँ

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3. आर बालकृष्णम्, 'पब्लिक ग्रीवेन्स अगेनस्ट द पुलिस,' xviii कालेज वीक, **प्रोसीडिंग्स**, सेन्ट्रल पुलिस ट्रेनिग कालेज आबू, पृ० 118।
4. 'पुलिस एण्ड पब्लिक', **पूर्वोक्त**।
5. एन सी पाल, 'कम्प्लेन्ट्स अगेन्स्ट द पुलिस, नीड फॉर एड्यूकेटिंग पब्लिक," **बैकग्राउन्ड, पेपर्स**, नेशनल पुलिस अकादमी, आबू, पृ० 73।
6. पी० डी० शर्मा, "पर्सपेक्टिव्ज आन इण्डियन पुलिस," **द इण्डियन जरनल ऑफ पब्लिक एडमिनिस्ट्रेशन**, खण्ड xix (अक्टूबर-दिसम्बर 1973), पृ० 525।
7. पी० एस० राम मोहन राओ, 'द इमेज आफ द पुलिस इन ए चेन्जिग सोसायटी," **डिवेलपिंग सोसायटि एण्ड पुलिस**, सम्पादित, जी राम रेड्डी तथा के. सिशाद्री, हैदराबाद : ओसमनिया यूनीवर्सिटी, (1972), पृ० 59।

8. सर्वेक्षण में प्राप्त आंकड़ों के लिए देखिये 'सरस्वती श्रीवास्तव'—'पब्लिक इमेज आफ द पुलिस' **जरनल आफ द ससायटी फार द स्टडी आफ स्टेट गवर्नमेण्ट्स** खण्ड V (जुलाई-दिसम्बर 1972), पृ० 243।
9. पी डी शर्मा, **पूर्वोक्त**।
10. **रिपोर्ट आफ द रायल कमीशन आफ पुलिस, फाइनल रिपोर्ट**, 1962।
11. **रिपोर्ट आफ द इण्डियन पुलिस कमीशन**, 1902।
12. के. पी. तिवारी, "पब्लिक ग्रीवेन्स अगेन्स्ट द पुलिस," सेमीनार पेपर, **कालेज वीक, प्रोसीडिंग्स**, सेन्ट्रल पुलिस ट्रेनिंग कालेज, आबू, पृ० 55।
13. सन् 1961 तक उत्तर प्रदेश में पुलिस लगभग पांच घटनाओं में से एक अंकित करती थी। 1961 में इस बुराई को दूर करने के लिए विशेष प्रयास किये गये। 1960 में जहां 64,131 घटनाएं अंकित की गई थीं, 1961 में 1,007,56 तथा 1962 में 1,277,85 एवं सन् 1963 में 1,297,22 अपराध घटनाएं अंकित की गई जबकि वास्तविक अपराध में वृद्धि 25% की भी न थी।
14. भारतीय पुलिस को सी. आर. पी. सी. अनुच्छेद 54, 55, 151 तया एवीडेन्स एक्ट के अनुच्छेद 527 के तहत बृहत शक्तियां दी गई है। अधिकांश शिकायतें इन्हीं शक्तियों के दुरुपयोग की प्राप्ति होती रही है।
15. के सी के राजा "प्रिन्सीपल्स गवर्निंग द एप्रोच आफ पुलिस एक्सीक्यूटिव्ज टू द प्रोबलम आफ पब्लिक ग्रीवेन्स अगेन्स्ट द पुलिस" **बैकग्राउन्ड पेपर्स एण्ड प्रोसीडिंग्स आफ सेमीनार**, सेन्ट्रल पुलिस ट्रेनिंग कालेज, आबू (1966), पृ० 100।
16. आर० बालकृष्णम, **पूर्वोक्त**, पृ० 122।
17, के०पी० तिवारी, **उपर्युक्त**।
18. **रिपोर्ट आफ द यू०पी० पुलिस कमीशन**, परिच्छेद 289।
19. एस. के. घोष, 'पुलिस एण्ड पब्लिक' 14 **एडवान्स कोर्स**, नेशनल पुलिस अकादमी आबू।
20. **इण्डियन एक्सप्रेस**, पूर्वोक्त।
21. एस० गुप्ता, "पब्लिक ग्रीविन्सेज़ अगेन्स्ट द पुलिस" **बैकग्राउण्ड पेपर्स** xviii कालेज वीक, नेशनल पुलिस अकादमी, आबू, पृ० 102।
22. एच० व आर०, "द इमेज आफ द पुलिस," **द इण्डियन एक्सप्रेस**, सितम्बर 1961।
23. ना काबिले दस्तअन्दाजी की श्रेणी में भारतीय दण्ड संहिता का सेक्शन 124 अ, 155 अ, 156, 160, 186, 188, 189, 190, 200, 295 अ, 298, 323, 352, 504, 505 ब एवं स, 506, 509, 570 रखे गये हैं। इनके तहत आने वाले अपराधों के विरुद्ध कार्यवाही न्यायालय के माध्यम से की जा सकती है पुलिस इस सम्बन्ध में कोई कार्यवाही नहीं कर सकती।
24. आर० के बैजल, "पब्लिक ग्रीविन्सेज अगेनस्ट द पुलिस," **सेमीनार पेपर** xviii कालेज वीक, नेशनल पुलिस अकादमी, आबू, पृ० 158।

25. वेन व्हीटेकर, "द पुलिस" पृ० 137।
26. आर बालकृष्णम, **पूर्वोक्त**।
27. एन एस सक्सेना, 'स्फीयर आफ पब्लिक ग्रेविन्सेज अगेन्स्ट द पुलिस,' **बैकग्राउण्ड पेपर** कालेज वीक, सेन्ट्रल पुलिस ट्रेनिंग कालेज, आबू, पृ० 6।
28. सन् 1962 में उत्तर प्रदेश के विभिन्न पुलिस स्टेशनों के अधिकारियों की गुप्त जांच परीक्षा के दौरान अधिकारियों के व्यवहार की शिष्टता परखी गई। 15 घटनाओं में से 6 घटनाओं के दौरान अनुचित व्यवहार पाया गया। इसके पश्चात उच्चाधिकारियों ने कुछ समय तक अधीन अधिकारियों पर सीधा नियन्त्रण रखा। 5 माह पश्चात पुनः जांच की गई तथा 24 घटनाओं में से 3 घटनाएं अनुचित व्यवहार की मिलीं। इसके बाद तीन माह पश्चात जांच की गई तो 18 में से तीन घटनाओं में अशिष्ट व्यवहार पाया गया। पुनः 6 माह बाद जांच कार्य किया गया, परिणाम लगभग वही रहे। ये स्थिति ये स्पष्ट करती है कि इस बुराई को दूर करने के लिए एक निरन्तर एवं प्रभावशाली नियन्त्रण की आवश्यकता है।
29. सिपाही प्रशिक्षण के इसी नकारात्मक बिन्दु की ओर संकेत करते हुए एक 'सिम्पोजियम' जिसका विषय था 'प्रोबलम आफ क्राइम' के दौरान एक सदस्य द्वारा यह प्रश्न उठाया गया कि 'आप सिपाही को अपराध एवं अपराधियों से निपटने की तकनीक तो अवश्य सिखलाते हैं किन्तु क्या आपने कभी उसे इस बात का भी प्रशिक्षण दिया है कि उसे एक शिक्षित व्यक्ति के साथ कैसा व्यवहार करना चाहिए ?' एफ. वी. अरुल, पुलिस ट्रेनिंग, **सी बी आई बुलेटिन,** खण्ड v, जनवरी, 1971।
30. **रिपोर्ट आफ द कमेटी आन री आरगनाइजेशन आफ द राजस्थान पुलिस,** 1973।
31. **रिपोर्ट आफ द रायल कमीशन आन पुलिस, फाइनल रिपोर्ट** 1962।
32. **रिपोर्ट आफ द यू. पी. पुलिस कमीशन, अनुच्छेद** 142।
33. वेन व्हीटेकर, **पूर्वोक्त**।
34. **रिपोर्ट आफ द केरल पुलिस री-आरगनाइजेशन कमेटी,** परिच्छेद 181।
35. **इण्डियन एक्सप्रेस,** पूर्वोक्त।
36. **उपर्युक्त**।
37. एम डी दीक्षित, 'द अग्लि पुलिसमैन,' **सेमीनार पेपर आॅन पब्लिक ग्रेविन्सेज अगेंन्स्ट द पुलिस,** नेशनल पुलिस अकादमी, आबू, पृ० 77।

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Book Reviews

S. C. Mishra, *State Police Organisation in India*, New Delhi, Central Reserve Police Force, 1975. pp. 912.

Introducing this brilliant publication to his readers the author in his preface has compared it with "an unplanned child, born accidently through an undesired emotional involvement." Even if that is so the author Shri S. C. Misra deserves the credit of producing a book which the Director of the Central Reserve Police Force has found "the best one of its kind for any one who wants to understand in a few hours the working of the Police in India." Brevity apart, to quote Mr. Saxena "it is comprehensive without being too long, objective without being dull, analytical without being irrationally critical and methodical in treatment without attempting to reduce the police system into any preconceived formula."

In a country like India, where the problems of regulatory administration seem to have been swept under the rug to stage the "Indian drama" of development, police service happens to be a profession which is rather misunderstood by all kinds of elite groups of society. Its colonial history has not only obscured its renewed efforts of adaptation to change but has also made everybody oblivious about the changes, hazards and the tragedies, the experiences of which are almost a daily bread to all kinds of policemen in the country. The situation becomes alarming when even policemen themselves show appalling ignorance and worse still callousness, to know, understand and identify the problems of their profession and the probable mentions they can think of at various levels of organisational hierarchy and government.

Shri S.C. Misra had had his innings in the police service of the country and has done a remarkable job in training generations of policemen from the Abu Academy. Now in his well earned retirement he has emerged

as an educator to policemen, the government and the society by his invaluable contributions in the field of Police administration in India. Mr. S.C. Misra combines in his person a rare experience of handling various kinds of Police jobs at different levels in the Union and State Police agencies before and after independence in India. His writings reflect not only a keen intellect but a sympathetic understanding of the Police profession without being extra-loyal to those organisational values which the Police culture tends to generate among its ranks.

The present book under review is a sponsored project with a specific purpose to capsule the relevant information for the trainees of the C.R.P.F. It has ten chapters encompassing a wide range of subjects from the historical background to the dilemmas of policing the metropolitan cities of India. The administrative organisation of the State police Force has been taken up for analysis vertically from the Police Station and outpost levels right up to the Senior administrative top hierarchy with a great emphasis on the organisation of the District Police. Horizontally the State Police organisation has been explored and outlined in terms of its administrative organisational systems for intelligence and criminal investigation and Policing the Railways and the Metropolitan cities of the nation.

Though designed as a textbook under training materials programme of the C.R.P.F. the present study can deservingly command a wider audience and should gainfully be read even by those who have spent a life time in police uniforms with little regrets or rewards. Shri Misra is meticulous in furnishing details and has a style which makes the presentation systematic as well as readable. The narrative helpfully enables the reader to equip himself with enormous amount of facts, but rarely precludes his judgement by offering preconceived notions about the working of Police in India. Nonetheless the author is a free citizen of a democratic republic is quite evident from his well considered views, so objectively expressed about 'morale and discipline of the state police' (pp. 177-92) in the concluding pages of the study.

Needless to say that serious studies about Regulatory administration in general and police organisation in India in particular need to be commulated on a continuous basis specially in the present critical context of Indian Polity and Society. Mr. Misra has competently handled the subject in his three publications, but he suffers from the obvious limitations of a police official, who is trained not to be too articulate to produce scholarly works. The documentation part of the book is extremely poor and leaves enough

to be desired. The author has perhaps deliberately avoided evaluations but this *ipso facto* deprives his work from its research value in terms of contribution to knowledge. The book may rightly be called a 'data bank' from which the future scholars of Police administration can draw valuable information, if not insights.

Notwithstanding the overall purpose and design of the project, which the publishers and author have so religiously adhered to, the book should have been produced more attractively (and even more costly under a hard bound cover) to make a lasting contribution through the clientele of its future library readers all over the world.

P. D. Sharma

B. Mehta, *Bureaucracy and Change*, Jaipur : Administrative Change, 1975, pp. 84. Rs. 10.

Sri Mehta, the author of the monograph, was formerly a Chief Secretary of Rajasthan. With the help of his vast administrative experience, he has been able to make some very scintillating analysis and revealing criticisms in these eleven essays. Throughout the eighty four pages, there is a continuous effort at projecting methods of change. The author is quite candid in exposing the contradictions which exist between the structures of our society and the polity. Thus in the chapter 'Administrative change-some facts' he writes, "The feudal characteristics are diametrically opposite to the principles of a democratic form of government and a socialistic pattern of society that we have shown by. This situation created is the result of the gap between what we preach and what we practise." Almost in all the chapters his theme is, "the character of the society in which a system works, influences and determines its effectiveness."

But he is not merely a social reformer. He does not say that the present administrative system is outdated. Rather he emphasises : "I have always believed, and still believe that the present system is basically sound." Without changing the basic system, he innovates many other subsidiary ones. The changes which are advocated here, show the original thinking of the author.

The chapter 'Planning and Implementation' besides providing the details of the State Planning Board advocates that the District Planning of development and implementation Programme, be handed over to the Zila Parishads

under the overall guidance and supervision of the State government. It is even suggested that the rural people should be compelled to participate in the development programmes. In the chapter "Some thoughts on State Administration" one finds some valuable suggestions such as, 'inspectorate to investigate delegated powers' and the 'cell system' to expediate the pending files.

Sri Mehta, himself a beneficiary of the system, does not hesitate in the least to destory the myth around the District Collector. He separates the Development Adminstration from Regulatory administration, and writes, "I am of the opinion that it is difficult for one man, i. e., the collector, to look after the growing problems of law and order, socio-economic development and tax collection simultaneously." The development administration should be given to Panchayati Raj bodies and, as he further opines, "The Collector should be completely dissociated from this aspect of public administration."

In the Chapter "Community Development and Panchayati Raj" Sri Mehta is still more imaginative and constructive. While discussing the past stages of the community development programme, he also keeps an eye on the future. The fifth phase, according to him, will be 'specialisation' oriented. When the role of the Panchayti Raj will change and the village Panchayat will hardly have any importance, "This institution might be utilised, at the most, as a local community performing municipal function."

In the subsequent two chapters 'Rural leadership in Panchayati Raj in Rajasthan', and 'Peoples Participation and Democratic Decentralisation' Sri Mehta vehemently criticizes our class ridden society. He writes, "I agree that caste considerations, faction and feudal character of the community play an important part in the working of Panchayati Raj institutions." As a measure to eradicate this endemic social disease, the author pleads for intensive civic education. But at this point he does not seem to be consistent and his suggestions have an air of being half-hearted ones.

In the Chapter "Redress of Public Grievances" Sri Mehta is more contemporaneous than his younger contemporaries. He suggests an elaborate institutional mechanism to redress the people's grievances. He also believes that the Collector should be designated as the District Grievance Officer with jurisdiction over every other Department in the district. With his characteristic zeal, the author would even associate the Gram Sabha with this function. It is suggested that a representative of the Collector

should attend every meeting of the Gram Sabha to take note of the public demands and grievances.

Although Sri Mehta does not hesitate to convert the specialist into a 'specialist-cum-generalist', he discourages it because of the generalistic ethics of administration. So he writes, "If the thesis of specialist were accepted then decisions should be weighed in favour of specialisation in such a way that while the specialist's mind would no doubt get the place of prominence, the entire nature of administrative decisions, being ultimately of generalist character, would undergo an undesirable change." Further he values 'specialisation' as an asset to the administration and disapproves its deterioration when the specialist turns into a generalist. So he writes, "Moreover, the more the specialists get involved in administration, the less they will be able to develop in their own fields of specialisation."

After a searching analysis of the many facts of public administration, Sri Mehta exhorts the administrators for a radical change in their attitudes in the present context of the socio-ethnic situation. As he writes, "However, the feudal character of our society reflects that elected representatives and public servants are motivated by an authoritarian attitude. There is a clear need for the transformation of our attitudes." With a view to associating the common mass in the administration, he suggests the formation of committees of the beneficiaries on the Yugoslav pattern.

Though some of the essays have been written in the context of a particular State, yet Sri Mehta's capacity to conceptualise the vital issues renders a lasting quality to his work. True, he has not solved all the problems faced by public administration today, yet he has unveiled the problems in their real contours and dimensions. The field of Public Administration is enriched by such an effort.

A. P. Padhi

Sudhir Kakar, *Personality and Authority in Work*, Bombay : Somaiya, 1974, pp. viii 136, Rs. 32.

Personality is the broadest construct employed by behavioural scientists. It is conceptualized as composed of units or elements which influence the individual's behaviour so that it is relatively stable and consistent across circumstances and is therefore predictable. Considering the significance of

personality as a focus of research, numerous studies have been published in this area. The book under review is another important contribution to this field of research.

The salient objective of the present study is to explore certain types of authority relationships which influence the work satisfaction and performance of subordinates. The main aspects of the problem which have been attempted in the work are superior style (type of relationship existing between superior and subordinate) and pschodynamics of subordinate behaviour (emotional affiliation, dependence, anxiety and the like). Apart from the personality correlates it is necessary to understand as to what type of working conditions can lead to greater satisfaction in what type of subordinate, i. e., what is the position of the subordinate or where he stands in the hierarchy of the organization.

In the first chapter of the book, the author has discussed the concept of authority. "Authority" is variously interpreted as : (i) property of a person, or (ii) position he occupies in the hierarchy of a work organization. There are three types of ideologies relating to superior-subordinate relations : (1) parental ideologies, (2) professional ideologies, and (3) fraternal ideologies. In Indian organizations, however, as the researches have shown, parental ideologies dominate the authority relationships.

The second chapter reveals that the methodology employed in the book is psychoanalytical. Rorschach ink blot tests have been used to measure anxiety, dependence, and aggression-hostility. For the measurement of emotional affiliation, the superiors, in groups of three were asked to discuss for an hour a case study in the presence of two psychologists who, in turn, were asked to rate on a six-point scale the emotional affiliation of the superiors on a twelve-item scale. The same method was used to measure task-control.

The third chapter relates the setting of the organization which has been empirically studied. The fourth and fifth chapters of the study are concerned with the quantum of satisfaction derived from the work and organizational identification and performance. Work satisfaction has been viewed as individual's subjective experience of his work situation.

The author has presented a number of hypotheses throughout his study. The most important among these are as follows :

1. The satisfaction of engineers would be lower than that of non-engineers under conditions of high control.

2. High affiliation on the part of the superior and high degree of control exercised over task performance would tend to have a positive relationship with subordinate satisfaction in work.

3. Individuals with relatively high anxiety would tend to show less work satisfaction.

4. Individuals with relatively high need for dependence would tend to show less satisfaction in work.

5. Young subordinates would show greater or lesser satisfaction in work than the older ones.

6. Subordinates with high anxiety under the conditions of high task control will tend to show greater dissatisfaction.

7. The individuals with high anxiety, high need for dependence and low aggression will tend to show greater identification with the organization.

8. Subordinates with high anxiety, aggression and dependence would tend to show lesser performance than those with low anxiety, aggression, and dependence.

The results obtained in the present study are in the predicted direction, i. e., most of the findings support the formulated hypotheses. However, since the findings are based on only 29 subjects—a very small sample for any generalizing statement—they cannot be assumed to be valid until the hypotheses are further tested in cross-organizational contexts.

It is clear that the present work is basically of an exploratory character. As the author himself has pointed out, most of the generalizations employed in this book are more in the form of hypotheses and suggestive inferences toward building of a theory rather than any definitive statements of results. To that extent, the book certainly possesses considerable heuristic value.

In the reviewer's view some of the generalized statements made by Kakar relating to anxiety are difficult to be accepted at face value. There are two types of anxieties : task-relevant anxiety and task-irrelevant anxiety. Generally, if task-relevant anxiety will be high then the individuals will tend to work hard. Consequently, there would be greater involvement and work satisfaction. This view is inconsistent with the author's opinion (p. 76). The results obtained in the study are not significant at .05 level. Further in anxiety states there is a feeling of helplessness, uncertainty, and ambiguity. If the superior and subordinate relations will be of nurturant

type and high task control will be exercised by the superior, it will lead to security feelings in the subordinates which in turn will lead to greater satisfaction. This view is again inconsistent with that of the author (p. 80). A negative correlation between task-control and work satisfaction was found in the subordinate group with high anxiety.

Besides, if high task-control will be exercised with the individuals of lower positions in the hierarchy of the organization or mechanical workers, it would lead to less dissatisfaction in comparison to the individuals holding higher positions, persons with higher education and the intellectual workers.

There are other limitations which are inherent in the psychoanalytical approach itself and which have, naturally, crept into the present study. For example the assessment of anxiety, need for dependence, aggression, emotional affiliation and task-control is purely subjective. In fact its analysis calls for greater expertise. Moreover, it is very difficult to operationally define such constructs.

Despite its limitations, the book, basically for its heuristic purpose, stimulating content and interesting style, will be appreciated by the teachers and researchers of Psychology.

Neelam Bajaj

Ravindra Sharma, *Village Panchayats in Rajasthan*, Jaipur : Aalekh, 1974, pp. 138, Rs 30.

At a time when Panchayati Raj in Rajasthan is breathing its last, Dr. Ravindra Sharma's book *Village Panchayats in Rajasthan* comes as a piece of stale news. It is so-called intensive study of Bhankrota village panchayat with condensed version of the analysis of the field data collected and incorporated in the author's doctoral dissertation. When a particular study is undertaken, due regard should be given to the present context, to any deviation from the past practices, whether it is for good or for worse and to the reasons thereof. Study of an almost defunct organization without bringing to light the reasons of its collapse can neither be called illuminative nor can it be treated as a scholastic analysis.

Study of a village panchayat at work and especially at a place such as Bhankrota which is quite near to the State capital and which is almost a

semi-urban locality cannot be taken as a representative account of the organization as it exists in remote villages of Rajasthan. Hence the title of the book *Village Panchayats in Rajasthan* is a misnomer and utterly misleading.

The book consists of 138 pages spread into seven chapters. Out of these seven chapters, the author has wasted three chapter in tracing the history of the organization at village level (describing its gradual development to a modern village panchayat working under the three-tier system of Panchayati Raj), composition and working of the panchayat and its committees and the election, powers and functions of panchayat non-officials. If the author would have been brief on these points, he could have saved enough space for other important matters which required a more detailed analysis.

Though the author has pointed out some examples of inaction in village development and the reasons thereof, he has failed to analyze the finer points of rural psychology, the haves and have-nots, the infiltration of the dirty town politics into village life which has polluted the entire organization and which is responsible for this inaction. He has pinpointed only communalism as the hallmark of "electoral politics" which is true to only a limited extent. It is a common experience that in a village the rich is elected by the poor, might exerts its right and the persons having ties at district or State level emerge supreme. Moreover the factors true for Bhankrota cannot be taken as common denominators to all the panchayats in Rajasthan.

The author has very ably dealt with the problems arising out of the carelessness and unwanted influences of the Sarpanch who ostensibly furthering the cause of development, in fact impeded the progress of the village. He is reported to have kept full quorum of the panchayat waiting without holding a meeting, without himself being present. Thus he neglected his usual administrative and supervisory functions. But the personal traits of a person cannot lead to the general study of a situation. The fact that the funds are misutilized, underutilized or unutilized in a village panchayat on account of reasons he directly ascribable to the Sarpanch have nowhere been dealt with by the author.

Chapter IV dealing with panchayat officials is sheerly enumerative and hardly illuminating. Problems arising out of administrative drawbacks have been dealt at length but Dr. Sharma has not put forward any suggestion to improve the situation. A threadbare analysis of the problems should be followed by solutions.

Chapter V is a good analysis of panchayat finance and the author has dealt with the budgetary process in details. He has fairly well covered the aspects

of accounts and auditing, pointed out the deficiencies in the auditing, of panchayat accounts at panchayat samiti office and the non-pursuance of the rectification of audit objections.

Chapter VI deals with gram sabha and is fairly exhaustive covering the necessary aspects of notification, attendance, agenda and implementation of decisions taken in the gram sabha. But in the present context, as is usually seen, gram sabha has only a symbolic value. Either its meetings are not held in villages at all and even when people gather, they disperse without resolving anything or else they pass fantastic resolutions only to be supplanted in the next meeting. Discussions, if at all they take place, only pertain to the factional politics, rumour mongering and backbiting.

Chapter VII purporting to bring forth suggestions and conclusions is not only insufficient and sketchy but also vague. It neither draws any conclusions nor offers suggestions which could remedy the ills and evils of Panchayati Raj at the basic level of a gram panchayat.

The printing of the book is not upto the mark. The quality of the paper and the get-up of the book is equally poor. Rupees thirty as the price of a book of 138 pages—so poorly presented—is exorbitant.

R. N. Saxena

Dharam Vira, *Memoirs of a Civil Servant*, Delhi: Vikas, 1975, pp. 150, Rs. 35.

Memoirs of a Civil Servant can with reservations be called an autobiography of Dharm Vira, who though a mediocre in his boyhood, rose to be a very brilliant civil servant borne on the once 'steel frame' of the British Empire in India— the Indian Civil Service. In this book he has given a very vivid, fascinating, revealing and engrossing account of the forty-two significant years of an eventful and exciting life which not only the author but also the Indian sub-continent had experienced.

The whole book is divided into eleven chapters—each devoted to one important aspect of his personal and national life. Chapter one 'Education and Influences' is a vivid narration of his birth, childhood, boyhood, schooling, heredity, marriage and the environment in which he was placed including the inspiration which he sought from Sir Ganga Ram, a very brilliant engineer of his time, to aspire to enter the coveted Indian Civil Service.

Chapter two of this book is devoted to an engrossing account of the Indian Civil Service as it existed in those days, the expectations of the East India Company and later the British Government in India from the members thereof, the role which they were required to play in Indian life and the attributes and the attitudes which they were endowed with. To quote the author : "It was a matter of great honour to belong to the ICS and its every member was actuated by the desire and determination never to do anything which will detract from its good name and tradition." It operated as a closed coterie of top executives which was hitherto the exclusive domain of the British for the governance of India. The one important among the many characteristics of the ICS was that the members recruited to this service were taught to take decision and to take it quickly, right or wrong. The author also emphasizes the benevolence, personal touch, objectivity and the patronage which the services extended to their juniors in respect of their postings, transfers, promotions and other personnel matters.

Chapter three is a narration of the events and the processes leading to partition of the sub-continent and the integration of the princely states into the body-politics of independent India. In this chapter he has given lively, readable and perceptive sketches of the leaders and personalities involved in these two major events of national life and whom he met and worked with.

Chapter four narrates very vividly experiences of his working with Pandit Jawaharlal Nehru, the first Prime Minister of independent India. This account is both subjective and objective in as much as it depicts his own perceptions of this great son of mother India, his likes and dislikes, his temperament and way of working and also his expectations from a civil servant. Dharam Vira's experience of working with Pt. Nehru is a memorable one. He has painted Pt. Nehru as a great man dominated by emotions, love for the people of his country, respect for saner values of life and the one always guided by reason and frank and free advice of his secretaries and colleagues. The author has, however, not been able to avoid self-adulation, though the objective which he appears to have been guided with throughout is highlighting the personal pleasure and the sense of achievement that a civil servant derives by successfully launching, organizing and conducting exciting, challenging and exacting assignments. That the administration in those early years of India's independence rose to the occasion, can very vividly be appreciated by going through this part of the memoirs.

The two chapters that follow describe Dharam Vira's working with Krishna Menon whom he paints in his personal way. May be this is

because of his prejudices or a result of the clash of personalities. The jeep scandal has been given a notable place in chapter five. The sixth chapter narrates his experience as Ambassador in Czechoslovakia and throws sufficient high how he could develop an equation and mutual understanding with the Communist regime in that country.

Chapter Seven is devoted to his contributions as a Secretary to the Government in the Ministry of Rehabilitation in rehabilitating the refugees who were forced to migrate from their homes–whic is nowh called Pakistan—to India. Rehabilitation at that time was considered to be a rather difficult post but the author discharged the various responsibilities including the onerous task of rehabilitating a large population of refugees successfully and to the utmost satisfaction of the then Prime Minister Pandit Jawahar Lal Nehru.

In the eighth chapter dealing with Indo–Pakistani War and the Tashkent, the author praises the leadership, the resoluteness and the dynamism which Shri Lal Bhadur Shastri as the Prime Minister of India, so richly provided and exhibited—bringing victory and glories to our nation. He also appreciates Lal Bahadur Shastri's concern and conciousness of the weakness in our body economic and his desire for "taking energetic measures for rapid industrialization which could generate more employment, increase wealth, warn away our youngmen from propagandas of a subversive nature and put them to creative and productive use."

Chapter nine and ten describe the author's experiences as Governor of Punjab and West Bengal—a period of great agitations and turmoil. Both these chapters make an interesting reading as they throwlight on some of the landmarks in the history of independent India ranging from the threat of the formation of a 'Punjabi Suba', the heart–rending announcement of self immolation by Sant Fateh Singh if the demand was not acceded to, to the political controversies of the United Front Government in West Bengal which necessitated the defining of the powers of the Governor, the Speaker of the State Legislative Assembly and the Chief Minister by the author as the Governor of West Bengal. In chapter ten, he has given a good account of the personalities which dominated the political scene in West Bengal those days, viz. Ajoy Mukherjee, his younger brother Biswanath Mukherjee, the latter's wife Geeta Mukherjee, Satish Samant, P. C. Ghosh and P. C. Sen. The political controversies which were raging very high in the West Bengal Legislative Assembly made him take very firm decisions which define the role of the Governor, and the interpretation of the Indian constitution on this important issue,

The chapter "Witnessing the Centre and State Politics" is a beautiful exposition of what should be the relations between the Centre and the States. This exposition is a result of the author's successes and failures which embraced him during his tenure as Governor of Mysore. Page 141 to 145 of the memoirs give a brief but logical exposition of the principles which should guide the relationships between the Central and the State Governments.

The concluding chapter is an "Epilogue." It narrates the author's active association with many cultural, charitable, educational, social, commercial and administrative training organizations of which Bhartiya Kala Kendra, the Ganga Ram Hospital, the Ram Krishana Mission, the Aurbindo Society, the Delhi Cloth Mills, the Administrative Staff College of Hyderabad were centres of his activities after retirement. Lastly, the author has struck a note of caution to those who publicize that he would join some political parties by remarking that politics is a game which he does not understand and for which he has not much taste. The author, as he concludes "has always prized greatly his independence of thought and action and cherished certain values of conduct."

"Style is the man" can rightly be believed by going through the *Memoirs of a Civil Servant* by Dharam Vira. His style is crisp, the expression is fluent and forceful and the events are well chosen and admirably described. The book, truly speaking, is more than the memoirs of a civil servant and goes a long way in suggesting solutions to the many political, social, economic, organizational and administrative problems which agitate our minds in the present time.

R. C. Gupta

Promilla Kapur, *The Changing Status of Working Women in India*, Delhi : Vikas, 1974, pp. 178, Rs. 35.

Recently, a large number of books have appeared focusing upon the social, economic and occupational aspects of the life of the Indian woman. Most of such works have been penned by women themselves. In the wake of the publication of the *Report of the Committee on the Status of Women*, ideas and issues concerning the role and status of working women have gained increasing significance. The book under review is an important contribution in this particular subject-area.

The opening chapter of the book discusses the changing attitude of educated women towards the institution of marriage. The analysis is based on two separate empirical studies conducted with an interval of ten years.

Interestingly it is found that the responses obtained in the latter survey bear a more 'liberal' tilt. For example, "modern" women seem to have more liberal views on issues such as love-marriage, widow re-marriage, inter-caste marriage and divorce.

The second chapter analyzes the relationship between the working wife and her husband. It becomes clear that wife's job is not the sole cause of tension in a marriage, although it could become so in case a woman is unable to strike a balance between her occupation and her family.

In the next chapter, the author focuses her attention on the milieu in which an Indian woman has to work. Thus there are several contextual problems that have been highlighted by the author. For instance, the author points out the problem of relationship of male boss and female subordinate, female boss and male subordinate and woman worker's relation with male colleagues. The author regrets that even now the women have not been accepted as efficient workers in their own right and are viewed with either apathy or with condescension.

The author favours the idea of setting up women social welfare organization in various offices. Hopefully, such organizations would provide women workers with facilities that would reduce their tensions in work environment. It is also suggested that women workers should be allotted residential accommodation near their offices.

The author highlights the point that Indian woman herself appears to be ambivalent towards her job vis-a-vis her family reponsibilities. At home she is an incarnation of 'self-negation' but at office she has to live in an environment of 'self enhancement and competition.' To make males worse, she faces the problem of discrimination in her occupation. Even when woman is in superior official positions, male employees are most reluctant to accept the legitimacy' of their *sareed* bosses.

To rectify the imbalance existing in this realm the author proposes a two-fold approach : she believes that the socio-economic status of women should be increased and besides, the attitudes of the educated males towards the role and status of women should also get transformed.

The author is certainly successful in drawing the attention of her readers towards the most crucial problems of working women. From methodological angle, however, the book has certain limitations. For instance the two groups interviewed in different time spans were not the same and therefore it is difficult to have a correct comparative assessment of the "modern" and the "traditional" views of women.

The book does carry an instrumental approach is as much as it offers a number of suggestions for the improvement of the conditions of the working women in India. It does make one think rigorously about the issues pertaining to the working women and that indeed is an index of the success of the author.

Geeta Chaturvedi

Narendra K. Singhi, *Bureaucracy : Positions and Persons*, New Delhi : Abhinav Publications, 1974, pp. 398, Rs, 60.

Indian bureaucracy portrays in the minds of general public a governmental set-up having a badly functioning administrative machinery. But the bureaucrats, try to justify their actions and blame the political set-up for interfering unnecessarily in their working. Political elites, on the other hand, describe the Indian bureaucrats as stumbling blocks and sometimes try to make them the scapegoats for all failures on economic and social fronts. In such an environment any study examining the bureaucratic phenomenon would arouse interest of scholars. Hence, justified is the entry of this study *Bureaucracy : Positions and Persons* by Dr. N. K. Singhi into the gamut of the printed world.

The British regime was the first in India which gave a formal shape to the bureaucratic structure. After the achievement of independence the patterns of bureaucracy have undergone considerable changes. The book under review traces the growth of bureaucracy from the Mughal period. The author has made an attempt to study both governmental bureaucrats working in the Indian conditions and test the propounded theories of the West with the Indian experience. It also examines formal as well as informal aspects of bureaucracy. It is perhaps the first empirical study focusing on certain sociological issues relevant to bureaucracy in India, based on field work conducted in Rajasthan. Thus it examines in detail the bureaucratic structure in Indian setting with special reference to Rajasthan.

The book has been divided into nine chapters. In the first chapter, the author illustrates the emergence of the concept of bureaucracy in its historical perspective through different periods, viz., Mughal, British and independent India. He has also explained the methodology employed by him in conducting the study.

The formal structure of bureaucracy both in public and private organizations has been discussed in the second chapter. It highlights relationship in areas of formal structure of bureaucracy in reference to recruitment, career

pattern, hierarchy, organization and procedure of works and in the particular context of the administrative problems existing in the State of Rajasthan. Though structure of bureaucracy existing in a private organization has also been discussed, the facts narrated are devoid of empirical support.

Chapter three deals with the social background of administrators. It is underscored that in the Indian context equality of opportunity, social and occupational mobility and availability of resources hardly exist, and that caste, region, religion, language, social and cultural heterogeneity play an important role in the civil service recruitment. This provokes the reader to ponder over the question of socio-economic inequality existing at all levels.

Dr. Singhi has discussed the pattern of interaction in bureaucracy in the fourth chapter. Here an attempt has been made to analyze the pattern of interaction giving shape to informal social relationship both within and outside official situations. The study reveals that mostly the relationship is based on the principle of "exchange"—a common feature of the administrative systems of most developing countries.

Next chapter concentrates upon bureaucratic personality, taking into account role-performance and job satisfaction. Some of the findings revealed in the study are very interesting. They have thrown light on the nature of functioning within the bureaucracy by the official and nature of interpersonal relationship among officials. This is an area which has long been neglected by the researchers. Apart from this, the chapter also delineates upon the phenomenon of job satisfaction which bureaucrats expect out of their work. This is a very relevant phenomenon as it determines the commitment of bureaucrats towards their jobs which in turn affects their efficiency. In this study, a very important finding is that non-technical bureaucrats enjoy greater fringe benefits and have high-job satisfaction as compared with technical bureaucrats. This indicates the distrust existing between the generalists and specialists and invites attention of the higher ups to take corrective measures for the country to march faster towards economic and social development.

In chapter six, an attempt has been made by Dr. Singhi to conduct a scientific-sociological study of dysfunctions of bureaucracy in the Indian context. The study emphasizes structural conditions responsible for dysfunction of bureaucracy and points out four important causes of corruption, viz., (a) economic deprivation, (b) moral weakness, (c) structural strains—societal, and (d) structural strains—administrative due to in-built rigidity of bureauracy. Dysfunction of bureaucracy has a bearing on its image and, as rightly

observed by Dr. Singhi, will adversely influence the quality and pace of social and economic change to be brought about in the country.

Dr. Singhi has devoted a chapter on the culture and life-style of bureaucrats. He has tried to examine it with a historical perspective. Though the author notes a change in the bureaucratic culture—from exclusive culture to more democratized one—he feels that it does not necessarily reflect the mass culture. In a changed environment, isolation of high bureaucrats and their lack of identity with the masses do not fit in the structure that is desirable to bring about social change.

Bureaucrats' value orientation has been discussed by the author in chapter eight. The study reveals that the bureaucrats are influenced by both traditional forces and modern pressures. Their social values are aimed towards modernity and universalism and are achievement-oriented, but their political values reflect conservatism. This implies lack of inconsistency in their action. Bureaucracy being the backbone of implementation of goverment policies should adhere to the values that are in consonance with national goals.

The last chapter presents the conclusions derived from the study. They reflect a structural lag with the emergence of new socio-economic order in an environment of equality and democracy after the independance. Some ambiguities in the relationship between the political leadership and the senior civil servants have arisen. This needs structural and procedural reforms. In this respect one can seek advice in the reports of Appleby and V. T. Krishnamachari and more recently in the report of Administrative Reforms Commission. But unfortunately bureaucrats have created an atmosphere which is inimical to reforms and their implementation. The utility of the book is enhanced by the inclusion of a detailed bibliography, schedule and the index. The book under review provokes the policy-makers to think in terms of creating an environment which would make the bureaucrats more responsible and administration more goal-oriented.

P. C. Sacheti

H. V. R. Ienger, *Planning in India,* Delhi : Macmillan, 1974, pp. v+84, Rs. 16.

The book under review is a revised version of John Mathai Memorial Lectures delivered by the author in 1974. The lectures were held under the auspices of the Kerala University. Mr. Ienger, though not a professional economist, has had long experience in economic administration in his capacity

as a Secretary to the Government of India in the Ministry of Commerce and Industry, as chairman of the State Bank of India and finally as the Governor of the Reserve Bank of India.

Besides a brief introduction, the book comprises four chapters. In the first chapter, dealing with the review of the four Five Year Plans, Mr. Ienger holds that these plans were not successful because they were directed more towards the "total" growth without bothering about the distribution of the fruits of economic growth (p. 8). He observes that it is in the field of implementation that we have failed, and the fundamental cause for this is that the people have not demonstrated a feeling of involvement in the planning enterprise. The author stresses, therefore, that plan being a national undertaking requires the active participation of all the citizens of the country.

In the second chapter, Mr. Ienger makes a comparative study of the Chinese and the Indian planning. He has selected China for comparison, particularly because it is a country confronting problems similar to those of India. The Chinese, despite discontinuity in their economy due to violence between 1958 and 1960, have made significant progress in the economic realm. Difference in the political system apart, India can learn few important lessons from China in the sphere of plan-implementation.

In the third chapter, the author outlines the directions in which the Fifth Plan should move so that it could be implemented in a more coordinated and effective manner. He has particularly emphasized that while formulating the plans, attention should be concentrated on the development of economically backward regions of the country.

In the last chapter the author, while analyzing India's inflationary problems, remarks that the spirit of an income policy, namely restraint, discipline and austerity should be observed not only by workers but by all sections of the community. He further observes that instead of laying excessive stress, on the use of fiscal and monetary measures to solve the problem of inflation, there is greater need for effecting higher standard of efficiency and integrity in the government and in business.

Lastly the author's analysis leads him to the conclusion that the policy planning, implementing and control functions pertaining to the programmes are not adequately performed. Therefore he advocates the setting up in India of a Council of Economic Advisers on the American pattern. He observes: "If such a council were set up and the government were really responsive to its advice the probabilities are that the plan would become a truly national effort and be more likely to be productive of the results which we all hope

for than the present attempts which have led merely to frustration and cynicism." (p. 84).

In sum Mr. Ienger has presented a lucid and pithy account of the problems of plan implementation in India and has suggested a more pragmatic approach in this context. The book will interest students and practitioners of planning alike. However, considering its small size, the price of the book appears to be on the higher side.

Shum Sun Nisa Alvi

Book Notes

Basrao, Sharda, *Municipal Government in Rajasthan : A Study of Evolution, Organization and Working*, New Delhi : S. Chand, 1975, pp. vi+353, Rs. 40.

The objective of this book has been built around historical-cum-analytical approach through comparative method to assess the relative positions of different municipalities in Rajasthan. Major emphasis of the work has been on the organizational structure and functioning of the municipal institutions.

Chauhan, Brij Raj and others, *Scheduled Castes and Education*. Meerut : Anu Publications, 1975, pp. xii+154+xxvii, Rs. 30.

This book examines how the students from the Scheduled Castes look at all the measures undertaken by the State, how the students live in two worlds of the school and the home, and how traces of modernity have begun making same in-roads into their culture. The present work highlights the latest findings on these and related points for the biggest State of the Indian Union, viz., Uttar Pradesh.

Timperley, Stuart R., *Personnel Planning and Occupational Choice*, London, George Allen & Unwin, 1974, pp. 236, £ 4.25.

The book analyzes and explains the link between personnel planning and career management. The author presents the results of studies designed to show the importance of this crucial relationship.

The study deals with the theory as well as practice involved in personnel planning and makes a distinction between the predictive and control elements. The author, on the basis of research conducted among both students and graduates and managers within the employment system, discusses the reaction of employees to organizational attempts to influence their behaviour through personnel policy and practices.

S. M. Sharma

Rudrabasavaraj, M. N., *Executive Development in the Public Sector*, New Delhi : Orient Longman, 1974, pp. 252, Rs. 35.

The study deals with the problem of developing skilled management in in the Indian public sector. The author has attempted to project future managerial needs of the public sector and has formulated an executive development model in this realm. The stated objectives of the book are : (i) to throw light as and promote better understanding of executive development in the various sectors; (ii) to provide a reliable source of reference to businessmen and industrialists in India and abroad; and (iii) to provide teaching material to management faculties.

Sengupta, Nitish K., *Corporate Management in India*, Delhi : Vikas, 1974, pp. xiii+242, Rs. 36.

Based the author's Ph. D. thesis submitted to the University of Delhi, the study highlights the changes that took place in the pattern of top corporate management in the large scale private corporate sector in independent India. Besides, it deals with the evolution of corporate management– in both the organizational and enterpreneurial aspects– in the private sector during the years 1913-1970. The book also contains a comprehensive bibliography of primary sources which will be useful for students of business management.

Nawali, A. W., *Political Administration of Indian Economy*, Delhi : Idarah-i-Adabiyat-i, 1974, pp. xi+351, Rs. 50.

In this book development history of public sector in India has been discussed. The fundamental causes responsible for the failure of the public sector in achieving the Directive Principles of the Indian constitution have also been highlighted. The socialistic society, the mismanagement of and the inherent defects in the public enterprises, political influence in the making of public sector, limitations of the Parliament, press and the people in adequately preforming their role towards public sector and the remedial measures taken during the Nehru and Indira regimes have been pointed out. Suggestions about improving the administration of the public sector and immediate steps to be taken by the government and Planning Commission have also been offered.

Mathur, Indu, *Interrelations in an Organization : A Study in Sociology of Medicines*, Jaipur : Aalekh, 1975, pp. v+238, Rs. 50.

In this work the attention has been invited of social scientists to the field of medical sociology in India. This is a study of general-cum-teaching hospitals in Rajasthan. It approaches the hospital as a social organization

and presents an analysis of interactions and inter relations between various categories of the hospital population.

Various chapters of the book deal with the role of the organization, power structure, process of communication and role deviations in the context of formal and informal systems of organization in the hospitals.

Nanjundappa, D. M., *Inter-governmental Financial Relations in India*, New Delhi : Sterling, 1974, pp. ix+132, Rs. 30.

The present study attempts to explore the mechanisms through which the Centre-State tensions in India could be reduced. It suggests the building up of comprehensive *integral index of development* to provide an effective criteria for distribution of the proceeds. It also examines the disastrous consequences of the revenue gap filling approach and provides an alternative system which could be fool-proof and would definitely help in solving the various out-standing problems.

Sharma, S. K. & Chawla, V. N. (eds), *Municipal Administration in India, Some Reflections*, Jullundur : International Book Co., 1975, pp. xxxiii+429, Rs. 60.

In this book the editors have tried to present papers bearing a critical review of municipal functions and powers, qualitative improvement in municipal leadership, reorganization and re-orientation of municipal bureaucracy, ways and means of financial resources, measures to bring about meaningful institutional collaboration between municipal government, rural government and district administration. The book is full of suggestions for reform in urban policy and implementation.

Seshadari, K., *Agricultural Administration in Andhra Pradesh : A Study of the Process of Implementation of Intensive Agricultural Development Programme*, Bombay : Popular, 1974, pp. 302, Rs. 45.

Although Seshadari's work is an analytical study based on empirical evidence from one State, viz. Andhra Pradesh, its observations appear to have national significance since the administrative set-up all over the country is more or less the same. The various problems like planning, coordination, communication, personnel, field relations, political and other ecological factors which impinge on administration are probed into deeply, thus making the study valuable to students, teachers and practitioners of public administration.

S. M. Sharma

Training Programme

Course for Commercial Taxes Inspectors

The course for CTIs was held in the Institute for a period of four weeks from 14 April '75 to 10 May '75. The training was mainly intended to impart instructions of Rajasthan Sales Tax Acts and Rules, Central Sales Tax Acts and Rules, Indian Sales of Goods Act, acts pertaining to entertainments and advertisements, passangers and goods taxation and electricity duty. Trainees were also acquainted with other rules and regulations of the Government of Rajasthan having relevance to their jobs. Besides, they were required to study the provisions of civil and criminal code. In view of the nature of these subjects the methods of training was mainly confined to class room session.

32 Inspectors participated in this course.

Case Study Workshop

A case study workshop was conducted in the Institute on 10 May '75 in which ten officers from government departments excluding the Institute faculty participated. During the workshop the case-leads, presented by the various participants, were discussed threadbare and many valuable suggestions were offered to the authors by the participants.

Course on Research Methods

A five-day programme on Research Methods was organized from 21 to 26 April '75. In all, 19 officers/lecturers participated in this programme. The programme was initially intended for orienting the faculty of this Institute with the following objectives :

(a) To acquaint the faculty with the various methods of undertaking empirical studies.

(b) To acquaint the faculty with the various methods of collecting field data, analyzing and interpreting it.

(c) To introduce the faculty with the fundamentals of report preparation and presenting the conclusion for the benefit of the government and the participants in various training programmes.

Institutional Course for Qualifying Accountants

The course which commenced on 9 December '74, ended on 5 April '75. The course attempted to achieve that the participants :

(a) reinforce their knowledge of financial, accounts and service rules with a view to interpret and apply them corrective ;
(b) acquire minimum essential knowledge in system of maintenance of commercial accounts ;
(c) acquire special insight into the working of works accounts, forest accounts and audit of local institutions ;
(d) appreciate their role in providing assistance to the organization in attaining its goals ; and
(e) improve their supervisory skills and achieve higher level of efficiency to a considerable extent after training.

26 Accountants promoted through a qualifying examination, conducted by Rajasthan Public Service Commission, attended this course.

Programme on Educational Administration

The programme was meant for Principals, Vice-Principals, Post Graduate Heads and Senior Lecturers of degree and post-graduate colleges in Rajasthan. It was organized for three weeks with effect from 19 June '75 at the request of the Director of College Education, Government of Rajasthan.

The main objective of this programme was to help participants to become aware of the role of higher education and their responsibility in defining and executing their role.

It was inaugurated by Prof. M. V. Mathur, Director General of National Council of Applied Economic Research, New Delhi who also delivered a talk on 'Job-Oriented Education'. Besides, a number of syndicate discussions, symposiums, lectures, panel discussions etc. were organized during the course.

The number of participants in the programme was 26.

Course of PERT

The course was conducted to implement the recommendations of seminar on PERT held in January '74. 31 participants belonging to Public Works, Rajasthan Canal Project and Mines & Geology Departments and Rajasthan State Industrial & Mineral Development Corporation, Rajasthan State

Electricity Board and Rajasthan Housing Board attended. Net work models of live projects were prepared and discussed.

It was a ten-day programme organized from 7 to 19 April '75.

Seminar on Simplification of Financial Rules

With the increase in development expenditure the need for financial and accounting reforms was felt in the State Government. The introduction of new accounts classification made it all the more necessary to examine the essential aspects with a view to bringing them in line with the changed circumstances and new administrative needs. The seminar was organized to meet this need from 5 to 9 May '75.

It was attended by selected Accounts Officers and representatives of major departments of the Rajasthan Government. Seminar was inaugurated by Smt. Otima Bordia, Special Secretary to the Government of Rajasthan in the Finance Department. The final recommendations were presented before Hon'ble Finance Minister and Financial Commissioner. The seminar made a number of recommendations in the system of (a) receipts and payments, (b) payments of personal claims of government servants, (c) stores purchase rules, and (d) delegations. And these recommendations are being examined by the government.

Professional Course for Labour Inspectors

The course for Labour Inspectors was held for a duration of two weeks with effect from 2 June '75 and 31 Inspectors attended it. The programme was offered with the following objectives :

a) that the participants are made aware of the philosophy and practices of the department;

b) that they develop a better appreciation of laws and rules that they have to interpret every day; and

c) that they are acquainted with the laws and rules relating to the civil services in the State.

Seminar on Project Planning, Information, Monitoring and Control Systems

The seminar was conducted in the Institute from 7 to 12 April '75 in collaboration with the Planning Commission of the Government of India. The objective was to discuss in detail and provide insight into modern systems of project planning, monitoring and control and establish their practical applicability to state projects. It is meant for all those who have to deal with any of these aspects whether in an engineering organization or in a secretariat department.

25 officers attended the seminar.

Training Programme

Workshop on Disciplinary Proceedings

The workshop was organized for the officers in the government who have to work as appointing authority, disciplinary authority or as an enquiring authority. 45 persons participated in this workshop.

The workshop was of two day's duration viz. 21 and 22 April '75. The methodology used in the workshop included lectures, case studies, group discussions and other exercises.

Professional Course for Statistical Assistants

The objectives of this training programme may broadly be grouped as follows :

a) that the participants are acquainted with the original source, procedure, extent and availability of various statistics emanating from various departments;

b) that the participants are made aware of the concepts, definitions, use and limitations of the various types of statistics collected and published;

c) that the participants are equipped with general procedure of working in the department of statistics and other departments to facilitate in their day-to-day working; and

d) that they develop a better appreciation for the applicability of latest techniques available in statistical science.

30 Statistical Assistants attended this course organized from 28 April '75 to 7 June '75.

Seminar on Administration of Tribal Development Programmes

The seminar was primarily meant to sensitize the Rajasthan planners and administrators to the special nature of their development efforts in the tribal context. It has also exposed them to the latest academic thinking on the subject. In addition to senior administrators and other personnel engaged in the challenging developmental work among the tribals, the participants have include academics and non-governmental workers interested in this subject. In all, 86 persons attended the seminar, which was inaugurated by Shri Mohan Chhangani, Minister for Social Welfare in the Government of Rajasthan on 30 May '75.

Training Programmes Organized During the Quarter April-June 1975

S. No.	Name of the Programme	Duration	Dates of Commencement		Number of Participants	Programme Director
			From	To		
1.	Course on Project Planning, Information, Monitoring and Control Systems	1 Week	7-4-75	12-4-75	25	Hari Mohan Mathur
2.	Course on PERT	10 Days	7-4-75	19-4-75	30	Bhagwan Singh
3.	RAS Probationer's Course (Second Phase)	2 Weeks	1-4-75	16-4-75	16	P.C. Sacheti
4.	IAS Probationer's Course : 1974 Batch (First Phase)	11 Weeks	10-4-75	23-6-75	8	Hari Mohan Mathur
5.	Course for Commercial Taxes Inspectors	4 Weeks	14-4-75	10-5-75	32	B. P. Sharma
6.	Workshop on Disciplinary Proceedings	2 Days	21-4-75	22-4-75	45	N. K. Sethi
7.	Course on Research Methods	1 Week	21-4-75	26-4-75	20	V. S. Sisodia
8.	Professional Course for Statistical Assistants	6 Weeks	28-4-75	7-6-75	30	S. P. Mathur
9.	Seminar on Simplification of Financial Rules	5 Days	5-5-75	9-5-75	35	Bhagwan Singh
10.	Case Study Workshop	1 Day	10-5-75	10-5-75	10	V. S. Sisodia
11.	Institutional Course for Qualifying Accountants	16 Weeks	9-12-74	5-4-75	26	S. M. Dharendra
12.	Seminar on Administration of Tribal Development	2 Days	30-5-75	31-5-75	86	Hari Mohan Mathur
13.	Professional Course for Labour Inspectors	2 Weeks	2-6-75	16-6-75	31	N. K. Sethi
14.	Programme on Educational Administration	3 Weeks	19-6-75	5-7-76	26	Jagdish C. Kukkar

Institute News

Seminar on Tribal Development

The seminar was primarily meant to sensitize the Rajasthan planners and administrators to the special nature of their development efforts in the tribal context. It has also exposed them to the latest academic thinking on the subject. In addition to senior administrators and other personnel engaged in the challenging developmental work among the tribals, the participants have include academics and non-governmental workers interested in this subject. In all 86 persons attended the seminar.

The seminar was organized from 30 to 31 May, '75.

Visit of Shri Mohan Chhangani

Shri Mohan Chhangani, Hon'ble Minister for Social Welfare, Government of Rajasthan visited the Institute on 30 May, '75 to inaugurate the Seminar on Administration of Tribal Development Programmes.

New Member of the Faculty

Dr. Ramesh K. Arora joined the Institute as Professor of Administration on 3 June, '75. Prior to this, Dr. Arora was teaching in the Department of Public Administration in the University of Rajasthan. Dr. Arora's works in the field of Public Administration include *Comparative Public Administration, Administrative Change in India* and *Public Enterprises in India.*

Transfer of Shri V. S. Sisodia

Shri V. S. Sisodia, Deputy Director (Research) in the Institute was transferred as City Magistrate to Jodhpur on 28 June, '75. Shri Sisodia remained on the faculty of the Institute for more than four years. He was coordinating the case-study programme in the Institute.

Prashasnika

Visitors During this Quarter

Prof. V. V. John, Visiting Fellow, Indian Institute of Advanced Study, Simla; Prof. M. V. Mathur, Director General, National Council of Applied Economic Research, New Delhi and Shri J. P. Naik, Member Secretary, Indian Council of Social Science Research, New Delhi visited the Institute in connection with delivering lectures to the participants of Programme on Educational Administration conducted in this Institute for a period of three weeks with effect from 19 June. '75.

Shri U. K. Kohli and Shri J. M. Kitchlu of Planning Commission, Government of India and Shri T. Rajachidambram and Shri G. Kantharaj of National Productivity Council, New Delhi visited the Institute as a resource faculty in the seminar on Project Planning, Information, Monitoring and Control Systems which was organized from 7 to 12 April, '75.

Dr. Brahmdev Sharma, Joint Secretary, Ministry of Home Affairs, Government of India; Dr. L. P. Vidyarathi, Professor of Anthropology, Ranchi University, Ranchi and Shri Brij Raj Chauhan, Professor of Sociology, Meerut University, Meerut visited the Institute to attend the seminar on Tribal Development held on 30–31 May, '75.

Besides, Prof. Ravi Mathai and Prof. Udai Pareek of Indian Institute of Management, Ahemdabad; Dr. B. C. Muthayya, Director of Psychology, National Institute of Community Development, Hyderabad; Dr. M. J. K. Thavraj from Indian Institute of Public Administration, New Delhi and Shri M. K. Subramaniam from Administrative Staff College of India, Hyderabad visited the Institute during the quarter April-June '75.

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